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1880.

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A
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AND ABROAD,
FOR THE YEAR



1880.

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FOR THE YEAR

1880.

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ENGLAND was half-startled, half-amused on New Year's Day, by an announcement that official relations with the Porte had been suspended. It was hardly possible to believe that any serious consequences could follow from the rupture, and yet so strong a measure could not fail to cause some uneasiness. The Austrian and the German ambassadors, it was said, were exerting themselves to heal the breach between Sir H. Layard and Said Pasha, the Turkish Prime Minister. But the former had put his foot down, after long forbearance, and was not to be moved. He remained in semi-official relations with the Sultan, but he would hold no official communication with the Sultan's Ministers till certain demands had been complied with.

These demands had reference to an incident petty enough in itself to be the cause of such a commotion. Several months before, a German Missionary, Dr. Köller, had been arrested and searched,

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and in a carpet bag which he was carrying was found a copy of a book containing disrespectful remarks about the Mohammedan religion, and two manuscript translations from the New Testament and the Book of Common Prayer. Dr. Köller's papers were seized; and a Turkish schoolmaster, Ahmed Tewfik, who had been employed to supervise the translation, was thrown into prison, and threatened with the extreme penalty of the sacred law, for having put his hand to an infidel document. So gross a breach of the Sultan's promises of toleration could not pass unnoticed, and as long before as in September Sir H. Layard had demanded the release of Ahmed Tewfik, the restoration of Dr. Köller's papers, and the dismissal of Hafiz Pasha, the Minister of Police, who had ordered the arrest of the Khodja. Satisfaction being put off on various pretexts, our Ambassador had declared that if his demands were not complied with by December 31, he would withdraw from official relations with the Porte. It was the performance of this threat that produced the startling New Year's Day news to which we have referred.

The breach did not last long; and in the end, Sir H. Layard had to put up with a very incomplete satisfaction. A letter from a "Nonagenarian" in the *Times*, who was at once identified as the veteran Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, gave a more serious aspect to the affair than it had worn at first. People had been somewhat puzzled by the importance attached to the arrest of the poor khodja till a "Nonagenarian" explained that Ahmed Tewfik was really a Ulema of considerable distinction, who had been tutor to a member of the Royal family, under Abdul Aziz; and held an important post in the Sultan's grammar-school—a sort of focus of enlightenment in Turkey. The persecution of this man as an apostate and a proselytiser, who had been simply employed as a scholar to correct a translation, was significant as an index to the temper of the fanatical party predominant in the Sultan's councils. It was of the utmost importance, a "Nonagenarian" urged, that they should not be allowed to secure a victory.

The progress of the incident was therefore watched for some days with curiosity, though the general interest quickly subsided when it appeared that the difficulty would be patched up. At the instance of his brother ambassadors, Sir H. Layard consented to a compromise: Dr. Köller's papers, which it was pretended had been lost, were restored. A harsh sentence of death or imprisonment, which had been pronounced on Ahmed Tewfik, was cancelled, and he was deported to the island of Scios, on the pretext that it was necessary for his own safety that he should not be left in Constantinople, exposed to the fury of fanatics among the population. In the official notification of his pardon, the Sultan made no acknowledgment of his breach of promises of toleration. He affirmed that Ahmed Tewfik was punishable under the law of the Koran, but that he owed his pardon to the Sultan's clemency and desire to be on good terms with his allies. Hafiz Pasha was not dismissed, but he

resigned his office, and immediately afterwards was decorated with the order of the Medjidie, and appointed one of the Sultan's own aide-de-camps. With this doubtful victory Sir H. Layard had to be satisfied; and tried in vain, in subsequent correspondence, to obtain from the Sultan's Ministers any abatement of his pretensions.

Between this disturbing creak in our strained relations with Turkey, the echoes of which had not died away by the end of January, and the opening of Parliament on February 5, the current of public affairs ran with tolerable smoothness; though there were angry spots here and there over the huge area of our Imperial system which needed anxious tending. The New Year had opened with good news from Afghanistan—the complete dispersal of the armed gathering by which Sir F. Roberts had been beleaguered at Cabul; and the apparent collapse of the attempt of Mahomed Jan to rally the Afghan cause at Ghuznee, under the green flag unfurled by the aged Mollah, Mushki-Alam. But this clearing of the sky on the North-west frontier of India did not last long. The clouds which had been dispersed soon began to gather again as threateningly as before. From the Transvaal on the 3rd came a welcome report that Sir Garnet Wolseley had accomplished his mission of restoring order, and that his return had been fixed for the month of February. But this was followed a few days afterwards by the less satisfactory intelligence that telegraphic communication with Pretoria had been cut, and that two of the Boer leaders, Burgers and Bok, had been arrested on a charge of high treason—or exciting their countrymen to revolt.

A livelier interest was taken in the disturbed state of Ireland. The belief in the reality of the distress with which the Irish peasantry were threatened would probably have been less dashed with scepticism if the language of agitators had been less heated, and an attempt to make political capital out of the distress had not occupied the foreground of their speeches. In particular, attention was directed from the facts of the Irish distress to the anti-landlord, anti-rent campaign in America, for which the distress furnished Mr. Parnell with a pretext. Mr. Parnell, indeed—who arrived at New York in the "*Scythia*" on January 2, and was received with addresses of welcome from Reception Committees of Irishmen in the United States—affirmed that one of his objects was to collect funds for the relief of the distress; but he declared from the moment of his landing that this object was subsidiary to another: the seizure of the unexampled opportunity for making war upon the land system; to the operation of which he believed the distress to be due. The *New York Herald* had advised Irishmen in America to subscribe liberally, to save people in their mother country from starvation; and proposed the appointment of a committee to collect funds for the purpose. Mr. Parnell was invited to join this committee, but he refused. He would have nothing to do, he said, with a scheme for the relief of distressed landlords and the British Government. It was for them to see that

the people did not die of famine. "If you want to help us," he said to his audiences, "help us to destroy the system which produces famine." Which was to say that Mr. Parnell wished to collect funds to carry out the purposes of his Land League, and enable small tenant-farmers to become the owners of the soil of their holdings. Irishmen in the United States, however, were more impressed with the necessity of making provision against immediate distress. Mr. Parnell was received with great courtesy. The halls of the Representative Assembly at Washington and of several State Legislatures were placed at his disposal, in order that he might fully explain his case. But he wore out his welcome by his wall-eyed pertinacity in urging his own nostrum, and the virulence with which he spoke of the Relief Funds organised by the Duchess of Marlborough and the Lord Mayor of Dublin. He not only described these funds as means for relieving landlords and the State from their just obligations, but indulged in bitter personalities against all connected with them. The American newspapers were especially severe regarding his attacks on the Duchess of Marlborough. They described Mr. Parnell's mission as a failure, and attributed the failure entirely to himself.

It was natural that the prospect of famine in Ireland should be supposed to be more or less a rhetorical "bogey," when Mr. Parnell, instead of urging that immediate relief should be sent, sneered at the relief agencies already in operation. Another circumstance which went to encourage the same impression was a quarrel between the managers of the two relief funds, whose head quarters were in Dublin. The Duchess of Marlborough complained that subscriptions were sent by mistake to the Lord Mayor, which were intended for her fund, and the Lord Mayor resented this as an imputation upon the honour of himself and his secretaries.

The symptoms of keen distress in England were less marked than last year, but the Revenue Returns furnished a significant index of the state of the national prosperity. Except on the supposition that the nation had taken a sudden fit of thrift, it was obvious that people had less money to spend when the Revenue showed such a falling off from the previous year. In the month of January, nearly a million less was collected from the various sources of revenue than in the January of 1879, and the first week of February presented the unparalleled phenomenon of a deficiency of more than half a million. The chief falling off was in the Excise. There was a decrease in January in the receipts from this source as compared with the previous year of 485,000*l.*, and in the first week of February a decrease of 342,000*l.* Although less was said about the distress in England, a great deal undoubtedly existed throughout the month of January, and quiet and unostentatious measures were taken for its relief. At a conference of unemployed labourers held at the Mansion House, on January 23, at which delegates from thirty-four districts were present, various schemes of relief were discussed. The idea of holding a meeting

in Hyde Park to make known the destitute condition of unskilled labourers was mooted, but local meetings were recommended instead. Such signs of the pinching of the industrial system made themselves felt, but Lord Derby was probably justified in a remark which he made in addressing the Incorporated Chamber of Commerce at Huddersfield, on January 8, that in no previous industrial crisis had there been so little suffering.

The oratorical battle between the leading men of the parties, which had been suspended about the time of the New Year, was resumed with fresh vigour as the reassembling of Parliament drew near. At Oxford, on January 13, Sir W. Harcourt defended himself brilliantly from the charge of saying the same things over again. Lord George Hamilton was also one of the first to break silence; he had gone to Edinburgh to encourage his party against the effects of Mr. Gladstone's Midlothian campaign, and made a dashing speech to the Edinburgh Conservative Association on January 14. On January 15, Mr. W. H. Smith spoke at Sutton, Sir S. Northcote at Stroud, Mr. Baxter at Forfar, and Mr. Stansfield at Halifax. This activity continued up to the eve of the meeting of Parliament. It was estimated that in the course of this recess more speeches had been made by Cabinet Ministers than in all the recesses of other Parliaments put together.

The death of Mr. Torr, one of the members for Liverpool, on January 16, gave rise to an exciting contest for the vacant seat. The result was eagerly looked forward to as a test of the feeling of the country, and both sides put forth all their strength. The Conservative candidate was a Liverpool solicitor, personally popular in the town; the Liberal candidate, Lord Ramsay, was unknown in Liverpool, but showed much spirit and ability in his electioneering speeches, and gained popularity so quickly, that his supporters, at first doubtful of winning a Conservative stronghold, began to be sanguine of success. A peculiarity in the Liverpool constituency is the size of the Irish vote, and out of this grew the most notable episode in the contest. It was announced at first that the Irish electors would abstain from voting, because Lord Ramsay would not go far enough to satisfy their Home Rule leaders. A day or two afterwards it was announced that Lord Ramsay had agreed to vote for Mr. Shaw's motion, affirming the expediency of an inquiry into the claims of the Home Rulers, and that in consequence the Irish electors of Liverpool would vote for him. A cry was immediately raised against Lord Ramsay's concession as a sacrifice of principle for the sake of winning a vote, and Lord Sandon, who was in Liverpool actively supporting Mr. Whitley's candidature, denounced him in strong language for thus identifying himself with those who wished to dismember the Empire. A report was circulated that Lord Ramsay, by his unworthy compliance, had forfeited the countenance of the Liberal leaders, and this report drew from Lord Hartington a letter in which he declared that while opposed to the demand for Home Rule himself, he did not consider it necessary to

repudiate the allegiance of those who might consider that demand a fair subject for inquiry.

Lord Hartington's frank declaration had only the effect of turning against himself the denunciations which had been levelled at Lord Ramsay. From numberless platforms and printing-offices came loud expressions of indignation against the iniquity of trimming his sails to catch the Home Rule vote. Lord Ramsay protested in vain in the face of the storm of abuse with which he was assailed, that he had not in the least changed his attitude under pressure. When he first addressed the Liverpool Nine Hundred, on being chosen as the Liberal candidate on the death of Mr. Torr, he had avowed himself anxious to make every concession to Irish claims with a view to the removal of legitimate discontent, short of any measures that might tend to the dismemberment of the Empire. He had said that he would not consent to the restoration of the old Irish Parliament, because that would be breaking up the empire, and from this position he would not budge. But he was willing to support Mr. Shaw's motion, as a means of raising the question whether, short of restoring the Irish Parliament, Ireland might not receive a larger measure of self-government. Lord Ramsay maintained that he had not yielded a jot, and that he had consented to vote for Mr. Shaw's motion only on the understanding that it did not pledge him to anything beyond the opinions which he had from the first distinctly declared.

The attack upon the Liberal candidate for Liverpool and the Liberal leader for tampering with Home Rule for party purposes was varied by a counter-charge against the Conservatives. Premising that the indignation of the latter with their opponents was feigned and theatrical, Mr. Sullivan, at one of the election meetings in Liverpool, undertook to "let in the light of day" upon some of their own transactions with Home Rulers. The idea of forming a Home Rule party, he alleged, originated with certain Conservatives. Conservative gentlemen supplied the money for the earliest Home Rule elections, and in particular the candidature of O'Donovan Rossa for Tipperary was fought with funds supplied by a Conservative nobleman. Further, Conservative members professing Home Rule had been singled out for honour and appointments. Mr. Sullivan's inference that Conservative Home Rulers acted with the connivance of these party leaders, who meditated at one time "dishing the Whigs" by giving Ireland a separate legislature, was immediately denied. Their action had been entirely independent. But the fact that Colonel King-Harman, Home Rule member for Sligo, had been appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Sligo county, could not be denied, and it furnished Sir W. Harcourt and Lord Hartington with matter for ironical comment on the duty of holding no fellowship with those who aimed at dismembering the Empire, and were therefore traitors to the country and the constitution.

The Liverpool contest was fought with infinite spirit on both

sides, and resulted on February 6 in the largest poll ever taken between two candidates in the United Kingdom. Mr. Whitley was returned by 26,106 votes, a majority of 2,221 over Lord Ramsay, for whom were polled 23,885.

Two other bye-elections followed immediately after, and were watched with hardly less interest for indications of the balance of parties. On February 12, a Liberal successor to Mr. Waddy, who had vacated his seat at Barnstaple to contest Sheffield, was returned in the person of Lord Lymington by 817 votes against 721 recorded for Sir R. Carden. The result at Southwark was more remarkable. Three candidates appeared in the field,—Mr. Edward Clarke, who avowed himself a thorough supporter of the Government, Mr. Andrew Dunn, an equally decided supporter of Mr. Gladstone and his policy, and Mr. Shipton, who stood as a Labour candidate. The Conservative candidate was returned by 7,683, against 6,830, polled for Mr. Dunn, and 799 for the Labour candidate. Mr. Clarke had received more votes than both his opponents put together, and so striking a result in a borough in which the Liberal side had from 1832 to 1870 been all powerful, was hailed by the supporters of the Ministry as conclusive proof that the country was with them.

When Parliament met on February 5, public interest was concentrated more on Liverpool, and the contest there proceeding, than on St. Stephen's. People were more concerned to know what this constituency would say, than what would be said by Her Majesty's Ministers. Curiosity had been whetted on one point. It had been rumoured that the Government proposed to introduce a Bill affecting the existing Land System. There was some eagerness to see whether this rumour would be confirmed. But no other surprise was anticipated and no surprise was given. Parliament was opened by the Queen in person, and the speech from the Throne, read by the Lord Chancellor, was as follows:—

“ My Lords and Gentlemen,

“ It is with much satisfaction that I again resort to the advice and assistance of my Parliament.

“ My relations with all the Powers continue to be friendly. The course of events since the prorogation of Parliament has tended to furnish additional security to the maintenance of European peace, on the principles laid down by the Treaty of Berlin. Much, however, still remains to be done to repair the disorder with which the late war has affected many parts of the Turkish Empire.

“ A Convention for the suppression of the Slave Trade has been concluded between my Government and that of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan.

“ At the close of your last session I expressed my hope that the Treaty of Gundamak had happily terminated the war in Afghanistan. In conformity with its provisions my Envoy, with his

retinue, was honourably received and entertained by the Ameer at Cabul. While engaged, however, in the exercise of their duty, he and those connected with the Embassy were treacherously attacked by overwhelming numbers, and, after an heroic defence, were almost all massacred. An outrage so intolerable called for condign chastisement, and my troops, which, pursuant to the stipulations of the treaty, either had withdrawn or were withdrawing from the territories governed by the Ameer, were ordered to retrace their steps. The skill exhibited in the rapid march upon Cabul, and in the advances upon the other lines of action, reflects the highest credit upon the officers and men of my British and native forces, whose bravery has shone with its wonted lustre in every collision with the enemy.

“The abdication of the Ameer and the unsettled condition of the country render the recall of my troops impossible for the present ; but the principle on which my Government has hitherto acted remains unchanged ; and, while determined to make the frontiers of my Indian Empire strong, I desire to be in friendly relations alike with those who may rule in Afghanistan and with the people of that country.

“My anticipation, as to the early establishment of peace in South Africa, have been fulfilled. The capture and deposition of the Zulu king, and the breaking up of the military organisation on which his dynasty was based, have relieved my possessions in that part of the world from a danger which has seriously impeded their advancement and consolidation. In Basutoland, a native outbreak of considerable importance has been effectually quelled by my Colonial forces ; while the Transvaal has been freed from the depredations of a powerful Chief, who, having successfully resisted the former Government of the country, had persistently rejected our attempts at conciliation. I have reason to hope that the time is now approaching when an important advance may be made towards the establishment of a Union or Confederation under which the powers of self-government, already enjoyed by the inhabitants of the Cape Colony, may be extended to my subjects in other parts of South Africa.

“Papers on these and other matters will be forthwith laid before you.”

“Gentlemen of the House of Commons,

“I have directed the Estimates of this year to be prepared and presented to you without delay.

“My Lords and Gentlemen,

“The Commission which, at the close of the Session, I informed you I had issued to inquire into the causes of agricultural depression throughout the United Kingdom, is pursuing its labours. In the meantime, the serious deficiency in the usual crops in some parts of Ireland has rendered necessary special precautions on the

part of my Government to guard against the calamities with which those districts were threatened.

"With this view they have called upon the authorities charged with the duty of administering relief to make ample preparations for the distribution of food and fuel, should such a step become necessary, and they have also stimulated the employment of labour by advances on terms more liberal than those prescribed by the existing law.

"I feel assured that you will give your sanction to the course which has been adopted where it may have exceeded the power entrusted by Parliament to the Executive Government.

"A proposal will be submitted to you for providing the funds required for these exceptional advances on the security of the property administered by the Church Temporalities Commissioners.

"I trust you will be able to resume the consideration of the Criminal Code, and of the improvement of the Law of Bankruptcy.

"Bills will be laid before you for enlarging the powers of owners of Settled Land, for consolidating and amending the Lunacy Laws, and for simplifying the practice of Conveyancing.

"I commend to you these and other measures which may be submitted for your consideration, and I trust that the blessing of the Almighty will attend and direct your labours."

The debate on the Address was prolonged over several nights by the Irish Members, who complained that the extent of the impending distress had not been fully comprehended by the Government, and that efficient measures had not been taken to provide for its relief. The Amendment of which Mr. Shaw, the Leader of the Home Rule party, gave notice, raised a wider issue than the mere question of immediate relief. He not only asked the House to express regret that the Government, "although in possession of timely warning and information, had not taken adequate steps to alleviate the distress now existing," but sought an expression of opinion that "it was essential to the peace and prosperity of Ireland, to legislate at once in a comprehensive manner on those questions which affect the tenure of land in Ireland, the neglect of which by Parliament had been the true cause of the constantly recurring disaffection and distress in Ireland." Legislation with a view to the removal of the permanent causes of distress in Ireland was one of Mr. Shaw's demands; but the protracted debate, renewed for three successive nights, turned almost wholly on the question whether the provisions actually made by the Government in view of the existing emergency were adequate.

The Bill on the subject, and the correspondence showing what the Government had been doing during the recess, were not ready on the first night of the debate on Mr. Shaw's Amendment, but the nature of the action taken, and the substance of the Government proposals, were explained by the Chancellor of the Exchequer. He

denied that there had been "any laches whatever" on the part of the Government. They might have been right in the measures they had adopted or not; but they had certainly not allowed the matter to sleep. The statistics given by Sir Stafford Northcote, from the report of the Registrar-General on the agricultural condition of Ireland, were startling. It was estimated that there had been a falling off in the principal crops, from the yield of the previous year, to the value of about 10,000,000*l.* The value of the potato crop was more than 6,000,000*l.* below the average. Sir S. Northcote maintained that this return, received on the day before Parliament met, had been no surprise to the Government, because the inquiries, which they had commenced as early as the previous September, enabled them to form a very fair estimate of the state of the country. But the figures of such an enormous deficiency startled many who had previously been disposed to believe that the Irish distress had no serious foundation, except in the imaginations of Home Rulers and anti-rent agitators.

It appeared from the official papers, that the first action taken by the Irish Government, after inquiries made throughout the various unions, had been in the beginning of November. A circular had been issued to the boards of guardians, impressing upon them "the importance of being prepared for the possible contingencies of the season, and of making due provision, beforehand, of ample stores of bedding and clothing to meet any degree of pressure on the workhouse which was likely to occur." They were also directed to have the unoccupied workhouse wards put in readiness, and to see that the relieving officers were in a position to be able to discharge their duties "in view of the possible increased pressure of distress."

The propriety of setting on foot public works had also been mooted in November, but it had been decided that such a system of relief would be open to abuse. The danger against which the Government had to be on their guard was two-fold. They had to take care that what they gave should find its way into the hands of the really destitute, and they had to take care also, that by giving, they did not break down habits of self-reliance and sink the population whose living was precarious into an abject slough of pauperism. Mr. W. H. Smith, who spoke on the second night of the debate, gave the fullest explanation of the difficulties of the ministerial situation. They were even precluded, he said, from making known prematurely the full extent of the precautions which they were taking, lest the needy should be prevented from trying to help themselves. Their first idea was to call into the utmost activity all the machinery that could be made available, as a safeguard against actual want. With this view they instructed the Irish Commissioners of Public Works to issue a circular to landowners, boards of guardians, and other local authorities, reminding them of the powers given to them under various Acts, to borrow money for important works, and offering them excep-

tional advantages. The first instalment of the repayment of the loans was to be postponed for two years, and the periods of repayment extended correspondingly. In order that the neediest class of the population might profit by the increased employment thus afforded, it was intimated that loans would not be granted on these terms for buildings, but only for drainage, planting, and other works calculated to give employment to unskilled labour.

The loans offered upon these terms had to be applied for by January 31, 1880. The applications were not numerous; they amounted altogether only to 113,000*l*. On January 10 the Lord-Lieutenant wrote to the Government that the time seemed to have arrived for making the terms easier, and the Government at once assented. The rate of interest was reduced to one per cent., and the period of repayment extended to thirty-five years, exclusive of the two years for which no interest was to be charged. In effect, the inducement held out was that landowners should pay nothing for the first two years after the grant of each loan, and an annual sum, in discharge both of principal and interest, of 3*l*. 8*s*. 6*d*. per cent. for thirty-five years, commencing at the expiration of two years from the date of grant. It was, of course, provided that all such loans applied for under the earlier notice should be held subject to the new terms. In order that the works might be quickly put in operation, application had to be made not later than February 29, and, in order that the immediate distress might be benefited by them, the condition was imposed that all the money borrowed should be expended before July 31. Sir Stafford Northcote announced that by February 6, 335,000*l*. in all had been applied for under these conditions.

It was anticipated, however, that landowners and sanitary authorities would not be able to provide sufficient employment for unskilled labour to meet all the necessities of the case, and another expedient was devised. Boards of guardians were admonished to notify to the Lord-Lieutenant if it appeared to them that there was great distress and want of employment in their unions, and if there was no prospect of relief from any action of landowners or sanitary authorities. The inspectors of the Local Government Board were thereupon to make inspection—three additional temporary inspectors had been appointed—and if the representations of the boards of guardians were confirmed, the Lord-Lieutenant was authorised to convene an extraordinary meeting of the Baronial Sessions in which the distressed district lay. The Baronial Sessions were to be convened, and to “present,” as the technical term is, for certain useful and profitable works, such as repairing roads, making cuttings and embankments, building bridges, tunnels, sewers, erecting fences and walls, widening and deepening wayside trenches. Loans were to be granted by the Local Government Board in response to these presentments, at the rate of one per cent., no interest to be charged for two years, and the money to be repaid in the course of fifteen years by annual instalments of

7*l.* 4*s.* 3*d.* per cent. The works undertaken might be carried out by the county surveyor, or might be contracted for, but the contractors were to be pledged to employ persons resident in the district, in priority to persons from other parts of the country.

Such were the provisions made by the Government, and as they had gone beyond the law in offering so low a rate of interest, they had to ask Parliament for an indemnity. They had to obtain an indemnity also for their proposal to advance the proposed loans upon the security of the Irish Church Surplus. The Relief of Distress Bill, introduced as soon as Parliament met, was framed to provide the necessary indemnities, and give the force of law to the provisional expedients of the Government. Besides the system of loans which we have described, it proposed also that the Local Government Board should be authorised to extend, where necessary, the powers of boards of guardians to grant outdoor relief in food and fuel.

Some astonishment was expressed that the Irish Members, instead of urging the House to proceed with all possible speed to the consideration of this Relief Bill, spent three nights over an amendment to the Address. Their excuse was that the relief operations were already in progress, and that meantime it was necessary that the Government and the country should be awakened to a livelier sense of the depth of the impending distress and the acuteness which it had already reached. Mr. O'Donnell went so far as to declare that the measures taken and proposed by the Government were "worthless," and "an insult to humanity," but few other members, though they used impassioned language, went so far as this. The Home Rule members, however, did maintain that the distress was much more serious than the Government seemed to suppose, and that the measures of relief proposed were inadequate and ought to have been put in operation long before. We have already stated the reasons given by the Government for proceeding with caution. Mr. Shaw and his followers would not accept those reasons. The easy conditions of loans agreed to in January ought, Mr. Shaw maintained, to have been offered at once, and he denounced "the shilly-shallying of the Government, the eternal letter-writing, the eternal going backward and forward." If they had held out the inducement of loans at one per cent. in November, there would, he said, by this time have been a sufficient amount of employment in the South and West of Ireland to meet all the necessities of the case. He held that the Boards of Guardians ought to have been instructed at once to relax the regulations against outdoor relief. It was not enough to empower the Local Government Board to authorise the guardians to relax the restrictions; the guardians should have been instructed to relax the restrictions. Being personally landowners and occupiers, they might have been trusted not to burden the rates too heavily. Mr. Shaw referred to a case where the guardians had applied to the Local Government Board for permission to give outdoor relief, and

this permission had been refused. Many Irish members spoke in the same sense, but though there was variety in their instances and their declamation, the burden of their speeches was the same. The Lord Mayor of Dublin made one of the most temperate and most impressive speeches delivered in the course of the debate. His position as Chairman of the Dublin Mansion House Relief Fund gave him special opportunities of knowing the state of the country, and he warned the Government that famine was not merely imminent, it was already upon the people. No death from starvation had yet occurred, but the people in many districts were in such a state of destitution, that unless immediate relief was given, they must perish. Did the Government, he asked, mean to stand by and allow them to perish? Nearly every member who spoke had some instance to give of the extreme poverty and need to which the people in various districts had been reduced.

Mixed up with the appeals for protection against starvation were many remarks about the landlords and the advantages they would receive from the method of relief adopted by the Government, which furnished Mr. D. R. Plunket with an occasion for a warm attack on the conduct of the Home Rule party. "To the Irish agitators," he said, "the present distress seemed a good occasion to call up the grievances of the past, to rake up buried sorrows, to exasperate the people, and to make them as little as possible ready or patient to endure their sufferings." He recounted an instance within his own knowledge where a landlord had visited a village, made kindly inquiry from the people when they expected the pinch of distress to come, been told that they could hold out till the end of February, some of them till next summer, and assured them that everything would be done that could be done to assist them when the hour of need came. "As I saw," Mr. Plunket proceeded, "my honourable friend leaving the village I have described, followed by tottering men and women, who held up their children in their arms to him, and blessed and prayed for him, I contrasted him in my mind with the loud-mouthed swaggering agitator preceded by a brass band and followed by a Fenian mob, who told the Americans they were not to send home their money in charity to this country, because the governing classes would dispense it—who said they were not to send home this money to the ladies of Ireland because it would not be applied in charity—who thanked God in the beginning of this distress that the rain was coming down in torrents, soaking the turf, rotting the potatoes, and poisoning the food of the people, and thus making the people the more ready tools for him to advance his own movement, and incite them to a bloody resistance."

Mr. Plunket was loudly cheered by his own side, and hotly interrupted by Mr. Parnell's friends. The effect of the prolonged debate, aided by the figures which Sir Stafford Northcote had quoted at its commencement, undoubtedly was to produce an increased impression of the seriousness of the emergency. Much

irritation was felt and expressed at the protracted opposition offered to the Address, but there was a fervour in the speeches of those who had been actual witnesses of the state of the populations in the most destitute districts that could not be explained away as the mere "blind hysterics of the Celt." Mr. Shaw's amendment was rejected by 216 votes against 66.

The leaders of the Opposition declined to join in the proposed vote of censure on the Government, on the simple ground that there was no evidence as yet that their measures had proved inadequate. The Government admitted, Lord Hartington said, that they had taken upon themselves a great responsibility, both by what they had done and what they had omitted to do. They had acknowledged their responsibility, and it was the duty of the House to make them feel that responsibility, and to call them to account for it. The duty of the House of Commons was to watch affairs, and to give its opinion when all the facts were before it. There were no means in the papers or in the speeches of the Government of knowing how far the expectations of the Government had been fulfilled.

The Address was at last allowed to pass, after an ineffectual attempt by Mr. O'Donnell, supported by sixteen votes, to add to it a violent denunciation of the Government for their neglect of Ireland, and the Relief Bill was read a second time on Thursday, February 12. The second reading was opposed by Mr. Synan, with an amendment protesting against the application of the Irish Church surplus in loans to landlords and sanitary authorities. The money, he contended, ought to be advanced out of Imperial resources, and the Church surplus should be reserved for the purpose of making a great experiment in the establishment of a peasant proprietary. Sir Stafford Northcote and Mr. Lowther replied on behalf of the Government, that there was no breach of the Irish Church Act in the application which they proposed to make of the surplus, but, on the contrary, in strict compliance with the provision that the surplus should be used "for the relief of unavoidable calamity and suffering." The loans being really for relief works, and not primarily for public improvements, they could not have made advances out of the general fund at the disposal of the Board of Works, without creating an embarrassing precedent. They had to bear in mind that there existed a fund which belonged peculiarly to Ireland, and which it was their duty to administer for the special benefit of Ireland. Outside Parliament, the Irish members were subjected to a good deal of ridicule, for thus trying to throw Ireland on Imperial resources, after the language which they had been using about the hardship of a union with England. Their desire that Ireland should be ruled by Irish ideas was contrasted with their desire that Ireland in her distress should be relieved with English money. Mr. Synan's amendment was withdrawn before the second reading, to be brought forward again on the motion for

going into Committee, when it was discussed for five hours and rejected by a large majority.

The object for which the speedy passing of the Bill was desired, was that additional powers might be given to boards of guardians for the granting of outdoor relief. But it did not make rapid progress through Committee, chiefly, the *Times* remarked, owing to the "intolerable verbosity" of the Irish members. The greater part of one night was spent over impracticable amendments before going into Committee; when the House did proceed to consider the clauses, it had made little progress when it was counted out. The Government wished to proceed with the Bill next evening, but Mr. Meldon had obtained a place for his annual motion on the Extension of the Suffrage in Ireland, and would not give way. On Thursday, the 19th, an amendment of really substantial importance was discussed—a proposal by Mr. Shaw, that boards of guardians should be empowered to undertake relief works of various specified kinds, such as the reclamation of waste lands, the improvement of river communication, the construction and repair of roads and bridges. The House had rejected, by a large majority, Mr. Shaw's proposal that boards of guardians should be permitted to grant relief in money as well as in food and fuel, but this proposal met with more support. It commended itself as a desirable alternative to the Government plan of relief works set on foot by presentments of the Baronial Sessions, a system of relief to which Lord Emly raised strong practical objections in the House of Lords. It was supported from the Conservative benches by Mr. Kavanagh, and Sir S. Northcote admitted that there was much to be said in its favour. But the Government, he said, could not be asked to "swop horses in crossing the stream;" it would take time to organise the proposed method of relief with sufficient care to guard against possibilities of abuse, and meantime it was urgently necessary that the Bill should pass. Until it was passed, Mr. W. H. Smith urged, the Government would be compelled to meet any sudden emergency by extra-legal action, which would be neither creditable nor satisfactory while Parliament was sitting. Mr. Childers supported Mr. Shaw's proposal, quoting, in its favour, the precedent of the measures adopted for the relief of the Cotton Famine in Lancashire, but the proposal was ultimately negatived by 109 votes to 89. A long sitting on Friday, the 20th, prolonged into Saturday morning, carried the Bill through Committee, and it was read a third time on the 23rd. There was a debate on the second reading in the House of Lords on March 1, and another short debate in the Commons, when certain amendments made by the Lords were considered and agreed to. One of the Lords' amendments was the rejection of a clause introduced at the suggestion of Mr. Law, modifying the landlords' rights, in cases of eviction, when money borrowed under the Relief Act had been applied to the holding. Mr. Courtney supported Major Nolan in

moving that the House disagreed with the Lords in this amendment. The incident attracted very little attention, but it foreshadowed what proved to be a very exasperating topic of controversy in the next Parliament.

The chief subject to which Opposition criticism was directed at the beginning of the Session, was the policy of the Government in Afghanistan. What did they mean to do to restore order? On what principle were they to regulate our future relations with the country? How long did they propose to continue the occupation of Afghanistan by British troops? Was the occupation permanent or temporary? Did they mean to retain, permanently, any part of the territory beyond the new frontier? In the February number of the *Nineteenth Century* an article by Sir H. Rawlinson appeared, which was generally supposed to foreshadow the Government policy, though both he and the Ministry expressly disclaimed connection with one another. Sir Henry advised the permanent retention of Candahar and Jellalabad, and the distribution of the Ameer's territories among mutually independent chiefs, each of whom should consent to accept a resident English agent. This he regarded as the only possible solution of the problem. He advocated also the formation of a new alliance with Persia, on the basis of the occupation by this Power of Herat.

Lord Granville failed to extract any definite declaration of their intentions from the Government. "Surely, my Lords," he said, "Her Majesty's Government should give us, not vague generalities, but some clear indication of what their policy really is." Lord Beaconsfield, in reply, protested that he did not know what Lord Granville wanted to be told. The assertions made in the press about the whole country being against England, had no guarantee of reality. "In point of fact, only one tribe, and a very limited portion of the country were against us." "Our policy," Lord Beaconsfield went on, "is a policy opposed to annexation, and we should wish to see the Afghans governed by a chief of their own choosing, but we must retain and maintain that military frontier which will be adequate to the defence and safety of our Indian Empire. . . . Although we have an English interest, which is to secure our Empire, our next interest is that we should have neighbours who are happy and contented, and who should not be under the control of any unfriendly influence. . . . We are taking those steps which we think are calculated to bring about the results we desire; but they are not things to be done in a morning. You cannot say those things as you would at a morning visit. You have a vast country with warlike populations, and these warlike populations quarrel among themselves. They are ready to make any engagements, provided you meet their particular wishes; but you have the great and difficult duty to ascertain how far gratifying their wishes may lead to the tranquillity of the country. If we sanction, by any way, the position and authority of individuals, we incur great responsibility if we do it to men whom the great body

of the people have no confidence in. It requires great care to bring a country like Afghanistan in its present state into a state of tranquillity and prosperity, but there are all the elements of peace and prosperity in that country, and the noble lord is acting under a most erroneous impression when he supposes that the great body of the people are opposed to England. Not one-tenth of the people are. I am not talking of those who are immediately controlled by our regiments, but of those who really represent great classes—the great chiefs of great tribes, who place themselves in confidential and friendly communication with her Majesty's Government, and from whose declarations, and from a wise calculation of the motive that actuates them, we have a right to infer that they are sincere in their desire to bring about a settlement of the country. And I believe that settlement of the country will be brought about, and that we shall have neighbours in Afghanistan upon whom we may depend for their tranquillity, and for their desire for commercial intercourse, and totally irrespective of the great object we have obtained in strengthening our frontier, and that result will be highly favourable to the population."

A blue-book of correspondence relating to Afghanistan was issued on the second day of the session, but it added nothing to the statement of the Government position given by Lord Beaconsfield. One of the despatches, sent to Lord Lytton in December, showed, indeed, that the Government were then under the impression that it would be impossible to re-establish the authority of any one ruler. But nothing appeared to have been decided; even on this point the Government professed to be waiting till they should hear the opinion of the Governor-General and his Council. The Blue-book contained very few traces of the researches which General Roberts was understood to be making into the internal politics of Afghanistan, the leanings of different tribes, the influence wielded by individual chiefs. It did not contain the evidence for Lord Beaconsfield's assertion that only one tribe and a limited portion of the territory were hostile to us, unless this inference were to be drawn from Sir F. Robert's opinions in his diaries before the great rising in December—opinions which that rising proved to be in error.

The despatch in the Blue-book which attracted most attention, was one in which Sir F. Roberts gave an account of a conversation with Yakoob Khan, touching the Russian inclinations of his father. It was Yakoob's opinion that his father's alienation from England began in 1873, after the famous Simla negotiations. From that time, dissatisfied with Lord Northbrook's assurances, he began to entertain serious thoughts of a Russian alliance. General Roberts was convinced that Russian intrigue had been carried much farther than had been supposed, and his conclusions, although, in point of fact, his reasons for them, as given in his despatch, did not go beyond what had been stated in the Cabul Diaries of a Native Vakeel, and published in the Blue-book of December 1878, were placarded by

some of the newspapers as "astonishing disclosures." It was rumoured that the Government had in their possession papers discovered at Cabul, of a much more compromising character for Russia than any then published. But they declined to produce them, on the ground that it was not for the public interest that they should be laid before Parliament.

The Duke of Argyll made a formal motion for the production of these papers on February 20, and seized the opportunity for fulfilling a promise which he had made on the first night of the session, that he would originate a full debate on the whole Government policy in Afghanistan. The Duke of Argyll's excuse for passing once more in review all the main incidents in our intercourse with the rulers of Cabul from the time of the treaty with Dost Mohammed in 1857, was that his own policy, when he was at the head of the India Office, was persistently misrepresented by ministerial speakers. His opponents did not, of course, admit the validity of this excuse, and taunted him with having occupied the House for nearly two hours and a half with the restatement of opinions and the discussion of incidents which had been not merely debated in the fullest manner before, but decided by an overwhelming majority. Who cared now, it was asked, for the treaty with Dost Mohammed; or what passed at Lord Mayo's conference with Shere Ali at Umballa; or the precise nature of the assurances given or withheld by Lord Northbrook at Simla; or the negotiations at Peshawur between the Ameer's envoy and Sir Lewis Pelly? People were anxious to know what arrangements were to be made to settle present difficulties; they had long ago made up their minds about the past. As a statesman of experience in Indian affairs, the Duke of Argyll should have offered advice for the present, and let the past alone. The answer made to this was that ministerial orators would not let the past alone, and that they habitually misrepresented the Duke of Argyll's share in it.

The speech made by Lord Northbrook in this debate attracted a great deal of attention. He was praised by the *Times* and the *Pall Mall Gazette*, because, unlike the Duke of Argyll, he dealt with the existing situation. Lord Northbrook excused himself for not entering minutely into the details of the Afghan problem. The Government, he said, had not supplied outsiders with materials for forming an opinion in matters of detail, and he was therefore obliged to confine himself to general principles of policy. The efforts of the Government, he said, reiterating the principles on which Mr. Gladstone's Government had acted, should be mainly directed towards establishing a friendly understanding with Russia. He refused to believe that there was any danger from Russian intrigues in India, but he was not therefore insensible to the critical position of the relations between England and Russia. "We have advanced," he said, "into Afghanistan. We hear of the assembly of Russian troops in Russian Turkestan. Troubles may arise in Afghan Turkestan, possibly actually, certainly sup-

posed to be, fomented by Russian influences. Within a few months we shall be so placed that any day the indiscretion of some officer or the caprice of some Asiatic chief may produce a situation in which one of two high-spirited nations may have either to submit to what may appear a rebuff or a humiliation, or to appeal to arms. Is it necessary, my lords, that this should continue? Can no stop be put to a rivalry which is detrimental to the interests of both countries? To any one who looks beyond the events of the moment, there is something almost appalling in the position of the British and Russian Empires in Asia. These two gigantic forces, which have hitherto moved, each in its own sphere, over the mountains and plains of Asia, diffusing, on the whole, peace and order over countries which were formerly the prey of anarchy and rapine, appear now to be impelled by some fatal attraction to meet in deadly conflict. It is the duty and the privilege of statesmen at the head of affairs to foresee and to avert such calamities."

The danger of Parliament falling into discredit was a topic which had often been mooted in the course of last session, and had often been referred to during the recess. The blame was chiefly laid upon the Irish Obstructives; but there was also an impression that the leader of the House had not shown sufficient energy in his efforts to put down the growing evil. The vindication of the dignity of Parliament was thereby elevated into one of the subjects upon which there was urgent and imperative need of legislation. If the Irish members had been less pertinacious in their opposition to the Address and the Relief Bill, and had shown any signs of giving up their practice of wasting Parliamentary time, Sir Stafford Northcote would probably have been able to resist the pressure put upon him by the advocates of drastic measures, and follow out what was apparently his own inclination—to leave the cure of the evil to the operation of time and the good sense of the offenders. But the speech-making on Irish Distress seemed so purposeless—unless on the supposition that it was deliberately intended to waste time—that those who held that the evil would grow unless checked by a sharp and immediate remedy found their case very much strengthened.

A private member, however, was the first to propose action. Early in the session Mr. Newdegate gave notice that he would move the adoption of a new rule, empowering any member to draw the attention of the Speaker to the fact that any other member was obstructing the business of the House. The Speaker was thereupon to put the question whether this was so, without allowing amendment or debate, and if the majority were of opinion that there had been obstruction, the offending Member was to be suspended for a time from the service of the House. A night was fixed for the hearing of Mr. Newdegate's proposal, but on that night another question had precedence—another matter involving the maintenance of the dignity of the House.

The action taken by the leader of the House in this matter was

hailed with less unanimity than the announcement of his intention to relieve Mr. Newdegate of the task of putting down Obstruction. Mr. Plimsoll was indicted by two members for a breach of the privileges of the House. In view of the disasters to grain ships recorded during the previous year, Mr. Plimsoll had obtained leave to introduce a Bill, making compulsory the loading of all grain cargoes in sacks or bags. Sir Charles Russell, one of the members for Westminster, and Mr. Onslow, member for Guildford, had given notice of opposition to the second reading; the effect of which was, that under the rule of the House about opposed business, the Bill could not come on after half-past twelve. Mr. Plimsoll immediately, in his indignation, had the walls of Westminster and Guildford placarded with a violent denunciation of his opponents to their electors. The object of the Bill, he declared, intended as it was to prevent a great yearly sacrifice of human life, was approved of by all the ship-owners in the House of Commons: at least, no one was found to oppose it. "There was no shipowner," the Westminster placard went on, "willing to put down the fatal notice" [of opposition to the Bill]. "It was, however, put down by Sir Charles Russell, your member. I ask, is it your wish that next winter should be as this, and that hundreds of precious human lives, and hundreds of thousands of pounds worth of property, should be lost? I ask you to say whether, if Mr. Onslow has done this of his own motion, it is not inhuman? And if he is merely the catspaw of some who wish to oppose (but dare not openly, for fear of their constituents), is it not degrading? Electors of Westminster, I appeal from your representatives to yourselves."

Mr. Plimsoll was asked whether he accepted responsibility for the placard to which his name was appended. He accepted full responsibility, maintained that his statements were correct, and at first was disinclined to make any apology for the strength of his language. But when, upon this refusal, Sir Charles Russell gave notice that he would make formal complaint of his conduct as a breach of privilege, Mr. Plimsoll sought to anticipate censure by making an unreserved withdrawal of his injurious imputations. He made the amplest acknowledgment that he had been mistaken in attributing to the members for Westminster and Guildford the design of wilfully obstructing the passage of his Grain Cargoes Bill. Sir C. Russell and Mr. Onslow declared themselves satisfied with his apology, and there the matter might have ended; but Sir Stafford Northcote was of opinion, that though the personal question between Mr. Plimsoll and the members whom he had attacked was terminated by his apology, the dignity and independence of the House demanded that some notice should be taken of Mr. Plimsoll's conduct. He maintained that the publication of such placards as Mr. Plimsoll had caused to be posted in Westminster was "distinctly opposed to the liberties of the House." He went back to the Bill of Rights, and advanced the doctrine there laid down, that the freedom of speech, debates, and proceedings in Parliament ought not to be impeached or questioned in any place out of Parliament. This

doctrine was intended to guard the privileges of Parliament against the Crown, but these privileges might be threatened from another quarter, and Sir Stafford "could not help thinking, that if such an action as that complained of, having reference to actual current business, and being in the nature of an appeal from the House to the constituencies outside, were allowed to pass into a precedent, we might find it followed by very serious results. One class of observation outside might slide into another class, and we might drift into a state of laxity which would be most injurious to the independence of the House and to free conduct of business." Sir Stafford therefore moved that "The conduct of the hon. member for Derby, in publishing printed placards denouncing the part taken by two hon. members of this House in the proceedings of the House, was calculated to interfere with the due discharge of the duties of members of this House, and is a breach of its privileges; but this House, having regard to the withdrawal by the hon. member for Derby of the expressions to which the hon. member for Westminster had drawn his attention, is of opinion that no further action on its part is necessary."

An animated debate ensued before this motion was carried by the ministerial majority. Sir W. Harcourt, Mr. Bright, and Lord Hartington, while all agreeing that Mr. Plimsoll's conduct was a breach of privilege according to ancient privileges, maintained that there was no precedent for taking any further notice of such conduct after a sufficient apology had been made to the members offended against. Such a resolution as Sir S. Northcote wished to put on the journals of the House might be used as a precedent for suppressing all comment on Parliamentary proceedings—out of doors. What was the difference between a printed placard and a speech, or a letter in the newspapers, or a leading article? If it was declared illegal to denounce a member's conduct by means of placards, where was the restriction upon outside discussion to stop? Sir W. Harcourt quoted examples in which former leaders of the House had declined to treat stray expressions against individual members as breaches of privilege, and had held personal apology and retractation to be sufficient. If, as in the case of the charges made by Mr. Ferrand against Sir James Graham and Sir James Weir Hogg, the accuser absolutely refused to retract, the honour of the individual member might be vindicated, as it had been in that case, by a declaration of the House that the charges were unfounded and calumnious. But it might lead to immense embarrassment if an attempt was made by a resolution of the House to define closely what constitutes a breach of privilege. Sir S. Northcote, however, persisted in his resolution, and it was carried by a majority of 66.

This resolution was carried on February 20, and on the 23rd Mr. Sullivan brought before the House certain matters which he alleged were as much breaches of privilege as the offence committed by Mr. Plimsoll. He charged Lord Cadogan with having committed a breach of the privileges of the Commons in a speech at a meeting

of the Conservative Association at Chelsea. Lord Cadogan had urged the electors to return two Conservatives at the next election, and thus, Mr. Sullivan held, as a peer had interfered in the election of the Commons. At the same meeting, Major Jocelyn had denounced Sir Charles Dilke for giving his support to "a despicable lot of Irish rebels." Mr. Sullivan appealed to the leader of the House to support him in bringing before the bar a man who had thus stigmatised a section of the members of the House. Mr. Sullivan's motion was generally treated as a sort of practical joke upon the Chancellor of the Exchequer's Resolution. Sir W. Harcourt argued that there was no distinction between Mr. Plimsoll's offence and Major Jocelyn's, and that those who proceeded against the one were bound in consistency to proceed against the other.

Three days of protracted debate, including a Saturday sitting, were spent over the resolution for putting down obstruction which Sir Stafford Northcote at last brought forward on February 26. The words of the Resolution were as follows:—

"That, whenever any Member shall have been named by the Speaker, or by the Chairman of a Committee of the whole House, as disregarding the authority of the Chair, or abusing the rules of the House by persistently and wilfully obstructing the business of the House, or otherwise, then, if the offence has been committed in the House, the Speaker shall forthwith put the question, on a motion being made, no amendment, adjournment, or debate being allowed, 'That such Member be suspended from the service of the House during the remainder of that day's sitting;' and, if the offence has been committed in a Committee of the whole House, the Chairman shall, on a motion being made, put the same question in a similar way, and if the motion is carried shall forthwith suspend the proceedings of the Committee and report the circumstance to the House; and the Speaker shall thereupon put the same question, without amendment, adjournment, or debate, as if the offence had been committed in the House itself. If any member be suspended three times in one Session, under this Order, his suspension on the third occasion shall continue for one week, and until a motion has been made, upon which it shall be decided, at one sitting, by the House, whether the suspension shall then cease, or for what longer period it shall continue; and, on the occasion of such motion, the member may, if he desires it, be heard in his place."

The gist of this resolution was to throw upon the Speaker in the first instance the responsibility of determining what constituted obstruction or a wilful disregard of his authority, and to provide thereafter an expeditious method of taking the sense of the House as to the guilt of the member whom he might have named. A safeguard was thus provided against the arbitrary exercise of authority by the Speaker; he was not empowered to punish, but a method of procedure was provided by which the House could

punish at his initiative "without amendment, adjournment, or debate." Sir Stafford Northcote's proposal was copiously discussed, Mr. Sullivan imparting a vivacity to the first night's debate by giving elaborate statistics of the opposition offered by members of the Government in 1870 to the passage of the Army Regulation Bill, which he contended set the example of Obstruction to the Irish Members. Rival methods of dealing with Obstruction were explained by Mr. Sampson Lloyd, Mr. Newdegate, and Mr. Chaplin, but Lord Hartington and Mr. Gladstone gave a general support to the Chancellor of the Exchequer's proposal, which was carried without alteration, and with the addition only of a proviso proposed by Mr. Forster:—"Provided always, that nothing in this resolution shall be taken to deprive the House of the power of proceeding against any member according to ancient usages."

Sir Stafford Northcote gave evidence of his determination to pass the resolution by appropriating Friday for its discussion, taking a sitting of the House on Saturday, and refusing to adopt any minute amendments in its wording. Mr. Gladstone expressed some doubt whether the resolution should be made a Standing Order, and Mr. Dillwyn formally moved that it was inexpedient to constitute an untried experiment a Standing Order in the last session of a Parliament. But only twenty members voted for Mr. Dillwyn's amendment.

Shortly after the censure passed on Mr. Plimsoll, the dignity of the House was vindicated in the case of an offender of a different type, Mr. Charles Edmund Grissell. Mr. Grissell had not been impressed, by his one day's imprisonment in Newgate at the close of the previous session, with the gravity of the offence which he had committed in taking refuge at Boulogne from the Speaker's warrant, and pleading medical orders. Before the opening of the present session he had sent a petition to Mr. Walpole which was not considered sufficiently respectful, and on March 2 he sent another which Mr. Walpole considered completely submissive and satisfactory. Sir Stafford Northcote proposed that Mr. Grissell should be taken into custody by the Sergeant-at-arms and reprimanded at the Bar, but at the instance of Mr. Rylands a more severe course was adopted, and Mr. Grissell was committed to Newgate for the remainder of the session.

The bold front shown towards Obstruction was generally believed to have had an effect on the speed with which the Army Estimates were disposed of. They were introduced by Colonel Stanley on March 1, to a House which, except when an Obstructionist attempt was made to count it out, never numbered more than fifteen members,—one member, as was remarked, to each million of the Estimates. The thinness of Colonel Stanley's audience, an instructive contrast to the excited crowd which met on the same day to hear the explanation of the new Army Bill in the German Parliament, was due to the simple fact that he had no change of any

importance to explain. There might have been more matter for discussion if Lord Airey's Committee, appointed in the previous Session to inquire into the system of short service, linked battalions, brigade depots, and other matters, had completed their labours, but, as it was, Colonel Stanley had no duty to discharge except accounting for small details of increase and decrease in expenditure, the operation of recruiting, entrance examinations, the number of desertions, and suchlike. The total of the Estimates was 15,541,000*l.*, a decrease of 104,000*l.* upon the figures of the previous year. The chief single vote upon which there was a decrease proposed, was that for the supply, manufacture, and repair of warlike stores, which was 145,000*l.* less. Before the outbreak of the Zulu war, the Government had proposed to reduce the number of the regular establishment by 4,000 men, and Colonel Stanley announced that in framing the present estimates he had reverted to this scale.

The House loudly cheered when the last vote of the Estimates was agreed to, as if congratulating itself upon being a reformed business-like assembly. The Navy Estimates were passed next Monday with equal expedition. Mr. Smith had also a slight decrease to propose in the total of the Estimates, which was 10,492,935*l.* for the year. The most important items in which reduction was proposed were the votes for stores, machinery, and contract shipbuilding, and labour. Mr. E. J. Reed complimented the First Lord upon the quiet, economical, and moderate character of his statement, and reviewed at length the shipbuilding of the Administration from the time of their taking office, with the object of proving that they had not fulfilled their obligations in respect of giving the country a real fleet and not one on paper. They had not yet, he complained, succeeded in completing a single ironclad of their own design. Mr. Shaw Lefevre also complained that the promised programme of the Government had not been carried out, expressed the opinion that an average return of 7,000 tons of ironclads was not sufficient for maintaining the navy of the country, and urged that a larger amount of money should be voted for ironclad building than had been expended during the last three or four years. Mr. Goschen confessed to having a considerable fellow feeling with the First Lord in regard to the criticisms to which he had been subjected. Still he also joined in urging that greater attention should be given by the Government to shipbuilding, upon which the late Government had concentrated their attention, while they were being abused for not having repaired sufficiently. Mr. Smith replied that it was true the Government had hitherto devoted themselves chiefly to keeping the fleet in repair, with the result of having in harbour a large number of ships capable of taking their place in line of battle. The fact that the fleet was in an efficient state of repair would enable them in the future to spend a larger amount in ship-building.

The construction universally put upon the vigour shown by the

Government in passing a check upon the Obstructionists was that they were clearing the ground with a view to carrying through some important measures of domestic legislation before making their appeal to the country. Early in the Session two of the measures mentioned in the Queen's Speech, the Criminal Code Bill and the Bankruptcy Bill, had been referred to Select Committees, and it was anticipated that they would be considered after Easter. On February 23, the Lord Chancellor introduced four Bills which embodied among them all the changes which the Government proposed to make in the Land Laws. Nearly a month previously, the *Daily News* had announced that the Government proposed to deal with the Land Laws, and the announcement had awakened a great deal of curiosity. Was Lord Beaconsfield in his last session about to dish the Whigs by going as far as they were prepared to go in Land Law Reform? The promise in the Queen's Speech of Bills for enlarging the powers of the owners of Settled Land, and for simplifying the practice of Conveyancing, had partly satisfied and partly whetted this curiosity. The Bills when they appeared were generally welcomed as sensible and useful proposals, but they had none of the sensational character which was anticipated when they were first announced. The object of the Settled Land Bill was to give tenants for life power to sell and to lease land in which they had an interest. Such power, as the law stood, might be conferred upon life-tenants by the terms of a settlement; but in practice the power is oftener given to life-tenants with the consent of trustees, or to trustees with the consent of the life-tenants. Under the Lord Chancellor's Bill, the power to sell and to lease, subject to certain checks, would be an incident of the Estate. The second of the group of Bills, the Conveyancing and Law of Property Bill, drawn in 64 clauses, was designed to shorten the present system of conveyancing, reducing it into narrower compass, and so lessening the expense. One great feature in it was that searches for flaws in the title should be made by the officers of the Government, whose certificate should be evidence for the purchaser. The third Bill—the Solicitors' Remuneration Bill—proposed that solicitors in non-contentious matters relating to real property should no longer be paid by the length of the instrument, but by a commission or percentage, in the same way that brokers are remunerated for the transfer of stock. The fourth Bill—Limitation of Actions Bill—had for its chief feature the reduction of the period of limitation in the case of claims against administrators, in respect of intestate estates, from 20 years to 12, an extension of the law passed in 1874. Legal opinion took a very favourable view of the Lord Chancellor's proposed changes, but they were destined not to reach the House of Commons in that Parliament.

More active interest was aroused by a Bill introduced immediately after the Parliamentary machine had been presumably relieved from the drag of obstruction—the Metropolitan Water

Works Purchase Bill. Mr. Cross explained the provisions of this Bill on March 2. The principles on which he took his stand were that unification of the eight Water Companies was the great object to be kept in view, if London was to be supplied with water at the least cost and in the best possible manner; and that this unification could not be satisfactorily effected by any arrangement among the Companies themselves. Therefore, the Government proposed to create a central body, to which all the existing companies should transfer their property and surrender their powers. The immediate value of the stocks to be transferred was estimated by Mr. Cross at from 27 millions to 28 millions sterling. The Scheme, as the *Times* said, was equal in its dimensions to the settlement of the financial and political constitution of many an European state. For the execution of the scheme not a sixpence, in the way of either loan or guarantee, was to be asked from the State. The Government had persuaded the Companies to assent to the issue of a 3½ per cent. Water Stock by the new Corporation—to be called the Metropolitan Water Trust—and to agree to take this Stock by way of payment. Disturbance of the Money Market would thus be avoided. With regard to the composition of the new Trust, it was to consist of 21 members—namely, three paid members (a chairman at 2,000*l.* and two vice-chairmen at 1,800*l.*), the Lord Mayor and chairman of the Metropolitan Board of Works (*ex officio*), two members nominated by the Local Government Board and the Chief Commissioner of Works, two nominated by the City Commissioners of Sewers and the Metropolitan Board, and 12 members elected by the Metropolitan boroughs and by the water consumers north and south of the Thames not comprehended in any borough.

Mr. Cross's Water Bill was never debated in Parliament, but it raised a storm immediately out of doors. All minor details were left out of sight in a warm discussion whether the purchase-money to be paid to the Companies had not been calculated on too liberal a scale. The consensus of opinion that the Government did propose to be too liberal was overwhelming. The dissatisfaction was irrespective of party. The *Daily News*, while admitting that perhaps a bad bargain had been made in the large sums which it was proposed to pay for prospective increase in value, stood almost alone in contending that the amount to be paid to the shareholders in Ordinary Stock was only a fair equivalent for the actual value of their existing revenues. The *Times* and the *Standard* criticised the scheme with more severity, the latter journal adducing an array of facts as to the operations on the Stock Exchange after the announcement of the scheme, which was more enlightening as to its effect than any amount of argument. "The extraordinary rise," the *Standard* pointed out, "that has taken place in the price of the shares of the London Water Companies since the Home Secretary brought in his Bill, sufficiently shows what is the opinion of the investors as to the financial character of the measures, and is, we are afraid, unanswerable evidence that the Government have been

too liberal with the public money. It is plain that an enormous additional value has been given to the undertakings of the several Companies, and a magnificent unearned increment has at once accrued to the parties who held shares at the time when the present excitement arose. The advance in the market price of the shares since the Government Bill made its appearance on Wednesday morning, is the more significant, seeing that it comes on the top of a previous rise. In fact, we get wave on wave, and those who have had shares to sell must have rejoiced in the flood which thus bore them on to fortune. When Mr. Cross promised, in the debate on Mr. Fawcett's motion last year, that 'no speculative change in the value of the Stocks, or the action of the Companies, would have the smallest weight with the Government in any proposal they might have to make,' a feeling of satisfaction was at once created in the public mind. But we are sorry to say that it will be the opinion of the most competent critics, that if the provisional bargain entered into between the Government and the Water Companies has been uninfluenced by speculation, it cannot be said that speculation has been uninfluenced by the bargain. At the commencement of 1879, the shares of seven of the London Water Companies stood as follows :—Lambeth, 153; West Middlesex, 137; East London, 151; Kent, 210½; Chelsea, 153; Grand Junction, 82½; and the Southwark and Vauxhall, 110. Taking these same Stocks as they were quoted a year later—that is to say, in the early part of January last—we find they had then risen to the following prices :—Lambeth, 187½; West Middlesex, 174½; East London, 194½; Kent, 245; Chelsea, 187½; Grand Junction, 116½; and the Southwark and Vauxhall, 185. This of itself would seem an abundant rise, indicating very sanguine expectations on the part of the buyers, and a tolerable inclination to hold on the part of the sellers. But we have to pile Pelion on Ossa in order to reach the golden summit attained by the holders of these shares. Yesterday the market stood thus at the close, after some violent fluctuations :—Lambeth Ten per Cents., 261; West Middlesex, 196; East London, 239; Kent, 336; Chelsea, 242; Grand Junction, 136; and the Southwark and Vauxhall, 278. Thus, in little more than a year, we see an addition made to the selling price of the shares which, in the case of the Lambeth Company, is rather more than 100%, while the Kent has an addition of 126%, and the Southwark as much as 170%. In the last instance we see the value of the shares considerably more than doubled."

Not only was there a vast deal of speculation in Water Stock, but a rumour gained currency, and even went so far as to be made the subject of questions in Parliament, that some speculators had got wind of the intentions of the Government, and made large sums by means of their knowledge. Mr. Cross promised inquiry into the matter, but it was dropped in the heat of the elections. There was a very general impression, considering the tone of the *Times* and the *Standard*, that the Ministry, after keeping its

majority unbroken through so many trials, would be wrecked at last upon the Water Bill, and the circumstance offered irresistible opportunities for punsters.

Before it was known that the Parliament was to come to an end without any such catastrophe, there were two standard subjects of debate, the Game Laws and the Temperance question, which received more than ordinary attention, it being understood that the utterances of leading men upon these questions might powerfully affect the General Election, which could not be far off, though it was nearer at hand than was generally supposed. On March 2, Mr. P. A. Taylor moved the abolition of the existing Game Law Code, as being "unjust to the farmer, demoralising to the labourer, and injurious to the whole community." Sir W. Barttelot moved as an amendment, that "it is not now expedient to deal with the question of the Game Laws," and Sir William Harcourt, as an amendment to this amendment, that the word "not" be left out of it. Sir W. Harcourt explained that he proposed this omission to afford hon. gentlemen opposite an opportunity of expressing their opinion as to whether it was or was not expedient to amend the Game Laws, and urged that their vote would be a criterion of the genuineness of their protestations of friendship to the farmer. The opponents of Mr. Taylor's resolution, which was rejected by a majority of 73, were chary of committing themselves to Sir W. Barttelot's amendment, and the curious result followed that, first, Sir W. Harcourt's amendment, equivalent to a motion that it was expedient to deal with the question of the Game Laws, was rejected by a majority of 16; and thereafter Sir W. Barttelot's amendment, that it was not now expedient to deal with the question of the Game Laws, negatived without a division. Sir Stafford Northcote complained that the effect of Sir W. Harcourt's amendment was "to turn the whole thing into ridicule."

Sir Wilfrid Lawson's Local Option Resolution was moved on March 5. One of the incidents of the debate was the maiden speech of Mr. Clarke, the newly elected member for Southwark, who was highly applauded for the vigour with which he defended the existing licensing authority, argued the inexpediency of proceeding in such a matter by abstract resolution, and ridiculed the injustice of such restraint as was aimed at by the Permissive Bill. A good deal was said by Sir Wilfrid Lawson's opponents about the mystifying character of his Resolution, which was identical in language with that of the previous year. The word "mystifying" was caught up and repeated by speaker after speaker, but there was no mystification whatever in Sir Wilfrid Lawson's introductory speech. He made no secret of the fact that his plan for dealing with the drink evil was the plan drawn up in the Permissive Bill. He had seen no reason, he frankly said, to alter his opinion that that was the best mode of regulating the traffic, but when he brought the scheme in all its details before them, all sorts of objections were made to details, and he could

not get the sense of the House upon the question of principle. His object was to unite the votes of all who thought that something ought to be done, and that that something should lie in the direction of giving the inhabitants of districts power to restrain the number of public houses. Sir Wilfrid Lawson's seconder, Mr. Burt, invited the support of the House to the declaration, as a recognition of the principle that the time had come for putting restrictions on the sale of intoxicating liquors.

Mr. Bright gave the weight of his eloquent support to the Resolution on the same grounds, deriding the idea that any member need be afraid of supporting it, lest by his vote he should commit himself to the Permissive Bill. The Permissive Bill had disappeared, he said; the advocates of a change in the law relating to the sale of drink were in no way tied to its provisions. He calculated that not more than five members believed in it. The Resolution pledged them only to disapproval of the present system, and that it was bad he held to be conclusively demonstrated. As a proof of the growing desire on the part of the public to see the evil dealt with, Mr. Bright cited the fact that a memorial in favour of the Resolution had been signed by 13,600 clergymen of the Church of England, including 15 bishops and other dignitaries. "The facts of the case," Mr. Bright concluded, "were overpowering; they were uncontested; everyone spoke in the strongest terms about the deplorable consequences of drunkenness. In addition, we knew that science, education, morality, and religion—all the great forces which moved good and wise men to action—were gathering about this conflict. The cries from our workhouses, the moans from the sufferers in our prisons—these all joined in one voice asking them to deal with this question."

The chief objection to the Resolution, made by those who would not have contested Mr. Bright's arguments, was that it was not the way of the House to pass abstract Resolutions condemning a system until there was a larger body of agreement as to the means to be adopted for its cure. The Government could not fairly be called upon to introduce a Bill while there was such diversity of opinion concerning the details of change. On this ground Lord Hartington announced that he would vote against the Resolution, although he found in it something to approve. Mr. Gladstone took up a neutral position. He could not vote against the resolution, because by so doing he would commit himself to the maintenance of the law as it stood. He could not vote for it, because, although he saw nothing to object to in the principle of local option, he had not yet heard of any plan for giving effect to that principle which it would not be premature to adopt. Mr. Gladstone objected also that the Resolution made no reference to existing interests. Publicans had the same right to fair consideration of their vested rights as those following any other trade or calling had when that trade or calling was interfered with by Act of Parliament, and the Resolution ought to have taken cognisance of their claims. Both

Mr. Gladstone and Lord Hartington appealed to the Government to declare their intentions on the subject, and complained that they had not sooner done so after the report of the Lords Committee on Intemperance.

When this report was first published, members of the Government had referred to it as marking an epoch in the history of the question. But Mr. Cross, speaking now for the Government, in answer to the appeal from the leader of the Opposition, declared that to his mind the twenty recommendations of the Committee presented no clear lines of action against excessive drunkenness. The only thing to be done, it seemed to him, was to make the best of the present system by regulation and supervision, trusting to the beneficial effects of education, improved dwellings, and such general influences in building up habits of sobriety. He denied that the present licensing authorities showed any tendency to laxity in the issuing of new licenses. Their tendency was all the other way, and everywhere there had been a steady disinclination to grant new licenses except for special reasons. It was indispensable that the licensing authority should have something of a judicial character, otherwise its decisions would give rise to much dissatisfaction. The tribunal should not be a tribunal appointed *ad hoc*, and it ought not to be appointed by a popular vote.

The falling off in Sir W. Lawson's support, as compared with the division of the previous year, was perhaps partly attributable to the scare produced by the activity of the publicans, and the revelations of the electoral strength commanded by them in the recent elections for Sheffield, Liverpool, and Southwark. But considerable effect was doubtless also produced by the speeches against the Resolution from members who fully recognised the evils of the existing system, although they were not convinced of the feasibility of any proposed alternative. "We believe," the *Times* said, commenting on the debate, "that Mr. Gladstone yesterday expressed the opinion of the centre of the House of Commons. The best men on both sides agreed with him. The present system of licensing houses for the sale of intoxicating liquors is far from perfect. It is not merely imperfect as all human laws must be; it has imperfections that might be removed, shortcomings that could be made good."

CHAPTER II.

THE ELECTIONS.

THE announcement of the dissolution was made in both Houses on Monday, March 8. The secret was well kept till the moment of its revelation, and everybody was taken by surprise, although everybody, once the announcement was made, could see how steadily the Government had been getting ready for the momentous step.

Lord Beaconsfield in the House of Lords contented himself with a simple intimation that Parliament would be dissolved as soon as the Chancellor of the Exchequer had made his financial statement for the year, "which he hoped to do almost immediately." Sir Stafford Northcote spoke on the subject at greater length, explaining the reasons for dissolving Parliament at the proposed time, and for not having made the intimation sooner. "It was not within our power," he said, "to come to a decision upon this subject earlier than the present time. In the course of the autumn the state of Ireland caused no inconsiderable amount of anxiety. We perceived from an early period that we should have to, and as time went on we saw that it was necessary for us to, take measures upon our own responsibility as a Government to prevent distress, or to alleviate distress, in that country. Those measures we took without the authority or sanction of Parliament, and it was necessary that Parliament should be called together in order to consider and give its sanction to what we had done, and also to consider what further measures should be taken." The Irish business, which had rendered necessary the reassembling of the House, having been disposed of, the Government had next to consider what would be the most convenient time for a dissolution. A Spring dissolution was on many grounds preferable to an autumn dissolution, and it was better to dissolve at Easter than at Whitsuntide, because there would still be time for a Session of the new Parliament in which important business might be got through. "There are various measures," Sir S. Northcote said, "which have been introduced, with which it is desirable that Parliament should proceed, but which we should not expect to finish by Whitsuntide, and which, if we were to dissolve at Whitsuntide, it would be quite too late to take up when Parliament reassembled." The effect of dissolving at Easter would be that Parliament could meet again by the beginning of May, and three months would be tolerably clear for the consideration of any measures that Parliament might take in hand.

With regard to the business of the House during its remaining fortnight of existence, Sir S. Northcote proposed to take votes on account of the Navy and the Civil Service Estimates, so that the Government might be able to put themselves in funds to carry them over the time of the dissolution. The Budget would be introduced without delay. The Metropolitan Water Bill had, of course, to be dropped, and Sir Stafford did not anticipate that there would be time to pass the Bill for the redistribution of the vacant seats, but the Government were anxious to proceed with the Parliamentary Elections Bill, and more particularly to deal with the vexed question of the conveyance of voters to the poll, which they thought ought not to be left in its present uncertain state.

The newspapers were filled next morning with accounts of the excitement produced in the constituencies by the announcement of

the dissolution. Sir Stafford Northcote made his statement about five o'clock in the afternoon, and the word dissolution was hardly out of his mouth when members rushed off to the telegraph office with the momentous news. The office in the lobby of the House was besieged, from that centre the news was spread in a few hours all over the country, and in a few hours more the busy wires, the conducting nerves of the body politic, brought back accounts of the effect produced and the preliminary steps taken for action.

The newspapers of the 9th contained graphic descriptions of the stirring of the political hive by the news of the dissolution, and they contained also a very remarkable document—the manifesto of the Prime Minister, couched in the form of a letter to the Duke of Marlborough, the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. It began by referring to the measures taken for the relief of the impending distress, and then, after an allusion to the care which the administration had shown for six years for the improvement of Ireland and their success in solving its difficult educational problems, proceeded as follows:—

“Nevertheless, a danger, in its ultimate results scarcely less disastrous than pestilence and famine, and which now engages your Excellency’s anxious attention, distracts that country. A portion of its population is attempting to sever the Constitutional tie which unites it to Great Britain in that bond which has favoured the power and prosperity of both.

“It is to be hoped that all men of light and leading will resist this destructive doctrine. The strength of this nation depends on the unity of feeling which should pervade the United Kingdom and its wide-spread Dependencies. The first duty of an English Minister should be to consolidate that co-operation which renders irresistible a community educated, as our own, in an equal love of liberty and law.

“And yet there are some who challenge the expediency of the Imperial character of this realm. Having attempted, and failed, to enfeeble our Colonies by their policy of decomposition, they may perhaps now recognise in the disintegration of the United Kingdom a mode which will not only accomplish, but precipitate their purpose.

“The immediate Dissolution of Parliament will afford an opportunity to the nation to decide upon a course which will materially influence its future fortunes and shape its destiny.

“Rarely in this century has there been an occasion more critical. The power of England and the peace of Europe will largely depend on the verdict of the country. Her Majesty’s present Ministers have hitherto been enabled to secure that peace, so necessary to the welfare of all civilised countries, and so peculiarly the interest of our own. But this ineffable blessing cannot be obtained by the passive principle of non-interference. Peace rests on the presence, not to say the ascendancy, of England in the Councils of Europe. Even at this moment, the doubt, supposed to

be inseparable from popular election, if it does not diminish, certainly arrests her influence, and is a main reason for not delaying an appeal to the national voice. Whatever may be its consequence to her Majesty's present advisers, may it return to Westminster a Parliament not unworthy of the power of England, and resolved to maintain it!"

The language as well as the substance and the circumstances of the letter were, as a matter of course, the subjects of much comment. Even the *Standard* admitted that "there was rather too much sonorousness for the fastidious ear in the manifesto of the Premier;" but, it added, "when criticism has done its worst with his letter to 'my Lord Duke,' there remains a substantial residuum of fact and sense." Verbal critics particularly busied themselves with the phrase "men of light and leading," which was declared to be ungrammatical; and demanded to know the meaning of the alleged "policy of decomposition." Political critics had graver fault to find with the attempt to fasten on the Liberal leaders complicity with the Home Rulers in the work of Parliamentary obstruction, and sympathy with their desire to "disintegrate the United Kingdom." Then it was asked, what were the grave dangers threatening the peace of Europe, from which no deliverance was possible without the continuance of Lord Beaconsfield in power? And what did he mean by the ascendancy of England in the Councils of Europe? A debate was soon after raised in the House of Lords, on a motion by Lord Stratheden for the production of a letter from Shere Ali to the Sultan; and Lord Beaconsfield was invited to explain himself. He declined to be more specific about his foreign policy, or the circumstances of which he was in apprehension, but explained that ascendancy was a word of various meanings; that he meant nothing more than moral ascendancy, and that he did not mean supremacy.

Meantime, however, the manifestoes from party leaders came pouring forth to engage public attention. Lord Hartington's address to the electors of North-east Lancashire was published on Thursday, March 11. It replied with spirit to the Prime Minister's challenge. "I seek," Lord Hartington said, "to evade no issue which the Government can raise; but it is necessary that they should be plainly stated, and that others which he has avoided should be brought before you. I know of no party which 'challenges the expediency of the Imperial character of this realm.' I know of none who have 'attempted to enfeeble our colonies by their policy of decomposition.' If our colonies are at this moment more loyal to the Throne, more attached to the connexion with the mother country, more willing to undertake the common responsibility and burdens which must be borne by all the members of a great Empire than at any former time, it is due to the fact that, under the guidance of Liberal statesmen, they have received institutions of complete self-government, and learnt to recognise the truth that entire dependence on Imperial assistance for their freedom and defence is not compatible with their dignity or freedom.

No patriotic purpose is, in my opinion, gained by the use of the language of exaggeration in describing the Irish agitation for Home Rule. I believe the demand so described to be impracticable; and considering that any concession, or appearance of concession, in this direction would be mischievous in its effects to the prosperity of Ireland as well as that of England and Scotland, I have consistently opposed it in office and in Opposition, and I shall continue to oppose it. This agitation has existed during the whole of the continuance of this Parliament. It has been treated by the Government until now, if not with indulgence, with indifference; and the attempt to arouse national jealousies, and reawaken national animosities by descriptions of dangers 'worse than pestilence and famine,' appears to me to be unnecessary and unwise. This agitation must be met, not by passionate exaggerations, but by firm and consistent resistance, combined with the proof that the Imperial Parliament is able and willing to grant every reasonable and just demand of the Irish people for equal laws and institutions."

Touching the influence of England in the Councils of Europe, Lord Hartington said: "The just influence of England in the Councils of Europe is an object which the Liberal party has pursued with at least as much sincerity, and certainly with more success than has attended the policy of the present Administration. The creation of the independence of Belgium was the work of a Liberal Administration; and the successful measures taken by the Government of Mr. Gladstone to protect Belgium when menaced may be well contrasted with the result of the Turkish policy of Lord Beaconsfield. But the influence of England does not rest upon boasts of ascendancy over Europe irrespective of the objects for which that ascendancy is to be employed. It rests on the firmness and moderation of our conduct, based upon the material and moral strength of our position, and exercised in concert with other nations on behalf of peace, justice, and freedom."

Mr. Gladstone's address to the electors of Midlothian appeared next day after Lord Hartington's. It had none of the diffuseness with which his oratory has often been charged; there was no surplus verbiage: viewed merely as a composition, it was a masterpiece of terseness and condensation. We quote the passages in which he replied to the "dark allusions" in "the electioneering address which the Prime Minister had issued."

"Gentlemen, those who endangered the Union with Ireland were the party that maintained there an alien Church, an unjust Land Law, and franchises inferior to our own; and the true supporters of the Union are those who firmly uphold the supreme authority of Parliament, but exercise that authority to bind the three nations by the indissoluble tie of liberal and equal laws.

"As to the Colonies, Liberal Administrations set free their trade with all the world, gave them popular and responsible Government, undertook to defend Canada with the whole strength of the Empire, and organised the great scheme for uniting the several

settlements of British North America into one Dominion ; to which, when we quitted office in 1866, it only remained for our successors to ask the ready assent of Parliament. It is by these measures that the Colonies have been bound in affection to the Empire ; and the authors of them can afford to smile at baseless insinuations.

“ Gentlemen, the true purpose of these terrifying insinuations is to hide from view the acts of the Ministry, and their effect upon the character and condition of the country. To these I will now begin to draw your attention. With threescore years and ten upon my head, I feel the irksomeness of the task ; but in such a crisis no man should shrink from calls which his duty may make and his strength allow.

“ At home the Ministers have neglected legislation ; aggravated the public distress by continual shocks to confidence, which is the life of enterprise ; augmented the public expenditure and taxation for purposes not merely unnecessary, but mischievous ; and plunged the finances, which were handed over to them in a state of singular prosperity, into a series of deficits unexampled in modern times. Of these deficits it is now proposed to meet only a portion, and to meet it partly by a new tax on personal property, partly by the sacrifice of the whole Sinking Fund to which five years ago we were taught to look for the systematic reduction, with increased energy and certainty, of the National Debt.

“ Abroad they have strained, if they have not endangered, the prerogative by gross misuse ; have weakened the Empire by needless wars, unprofitable extensions, and unwise engagements ; and have dishonoured it in the eyes of Europe by filching the island of Cyprus from the Porte, under a treaty clandestinely concluded in violation of the Treaty of Paris, which formed part of the international law of Christendom.

“ If we turn from considerations of principle to material results, they have aggrandised Russia ; lured Turkey on to her dismemberment, if not her ruin ; replaced the Christian population of Macedonia under a debasing yoke ; and loaded India with the costs and dangers of a prolonged and unjustifiable war, while they have at the same time augmented her taxation and curtailed her liberties. At this moment we are told of other secret negotiations with Persia, entailing further liabilities without further strength ; and from day to day, under a Ministry called, as if in mockery, Conservative, the nation is perplexed with fear of change.”

The addresses of the secondary members of the Cabinet were a remarkable contrast, in point of expression, to the Premier's letter, but they reiterated substantially the same reasons for receiving the confidence of the electors. “ One, and not the least important, of the issues submitted to the constituencies,” Mr. W. H. Smith said, in an address to the electors of Westminster, issued on March 12, “ is whether that policy which has averted war in Europe is to be reversed, and England is to retire to a position of abstention and indifference as to European politics and affairs.

"I believe such a course would be an abnegation of duty, and disastrous to the political and commercial interests of the country." Mr. Smith also hinted that the blame of the meagre legislation achieved by the Administration rested on the Opposition. "It will be the duty," he said, "of the new Parliament to give serious attention to those questions of domestic legislation which require to be dealt with, but which, during the present Parliament, have been postponed by persistent discussions on the policy of the Government and by obstruction. I trust that the steps which have been taken to secure decorum and order in the conduct of the business of the House of Commons will facilitate the progress of measures which have been unduly delayed."

Sir Stafford Northcote's address to the electors of North Devon contained a more elaborate vindication of the Ministry, conceived on the same grounds. "The duration of the Parliament now about to be dissolved," he said, "has been long; but its age is not to be measured by the number of years for which it has sat, so much as by the importance of the events which have occurred during the term of its existence, and the magnitude of the issues which it has been called on to decide. Throughout a period of no common difficulty and anxiety it has upheld the honour of the country, and has vindicated its claim to its proper rank and influence among the nations of the world. Though it has not escaped the captious criticisms of a certain number of politicians within and without its walls, it has received at the hands of the nation a generous recognition of its patriotic aims and its courageous firmness in support of those great interests which a British Parliament has it in charge to maintain. Its foreign, its colonial, and its domestic policy have all been animated by the same spirit, and the same determination to uphold at once the greatness, the integrity, and the constitution of the Empire, and to knit together the various races who own the sovereignty of the Queen, and the various classes of society which constitute the strength of her people. It has laboured to avert war; and where that has not been possible it has successfully striven to limit its range, and to prevent complications which would have been alike menacing to the particular interests of this country and to the general peace of Europe. It has emphatically proclaimed the national determination to maintain, strengthen, and defend our great colonial and Indian Empire. It has earnestly promoted measures for the advancement of the true interests of Ireland; while it has steadily resisted proposals, however plausible, tending to weaken, or even to dissolve, the ties which bind together the great members of the United Kingdom. In its domestic legislation it has kept in view the importance of aiming at the general good of the community, and of doing strict justice between apparently conflicting interests without sacrificing the welfare of one class to the claims or the prejudices of others. At the same time, it has been on its guard against the danger of attempting to remodel our ancient institutions in accordance with theoretical ideas unsuited to the national character."

The following was Sir Stafford Northcote's defence of his financial policy. "After a period of almost unexampled commercial depression and of grave agricultural losses, during which we have had to incur the expense of defending our interests in three different quarters of the globe, the taxation of the country is lighter than in almost any year previous to the accession of the present Government to power, while the real amount of the National Debt stands now at 18,000,000*l.* below the sum at which we found it. The Crimean war added upwards of 40,000,000*l.* to the debt, and left the taxpayer subject to an income tax of 1*s.* 4*d.* in the pound, besides heavy imposts on the necessaries of life. The war into which, but for a decided policy, we should probably have been drawn, would have been even more burdensome both to the taxpayer of the day and to our posterity."

Amidst the excitement of electioneering, the Budget, which was introduced on March 12, attracted only a subordinate interest. It was evident from the Revenue Returns that there would be a deficit of nearly 2,000,000*l.* upon the Estimates, and it was pretty well understood beforehand how Sir Stafford Northcote would meet his difficulties. No additional taxation was anticipated, and the anticipation was justified. The Chancellor proposed making a change in the Probate and Administration Duties, which would, he calculated, bring an addition to the income of 700,000*l.*, but he did not propose to add to the burdens of the taxpayer. Altogether he had 8,000,000*l.* of outstanding bonds and bills to provide for. The plan by which he proposed to meet them was to renew bills for 2,000,000*l.*, and to create terminable annuities, to be paid off by the end of 1885, covering the remaining 6,000,000*l.*

The following is an outline of Sir Stafford Northcote's account of his stewardship, which, it was remarked, was delivered with unusual hesitation. Apologising at the outset for the errors inseparable from the inconvenient moment at which circumstances had compelled him to introduce the Budget, he reminded the House that the estimated revenue for the present year was 83,055,000*l.*, against an expenditure of 81,155,000*l.*, showing a surplus of 1,900,000*l.*; which, however, was turned into a deficit of 1,161,000*l.* by a vote of credit of 3,000,000*l.*, taken on account of the South African war. But the yield of revenue, he regretted to say, had fallen short of the Estimates by about 2,195,000*l.*, so that the total deficit for the present year had risen to 3,355,000*l.* With regard to the Supplementary Estimates, he pointed out that those taken for the Civil Service had already been covered by savings; and the cost of the Zulu war, he said, was now pretty definitely ascertained to be 5,138,000*l.*, of which 4,396,000*l.* was in the Army Services, 690,000*l.* in the Navy, and 50,000*l.* in civil contingencies. But so far from any new charge being necessary, the whole amount had already been voted in votes of credit and in the ordinary Army and Navy Services, and 177,000*l.* to spare. The total amount of the Supplementary Estimates was 1,783,000*l.*, but the savings were

1,817,000*l.*, so that the savings had more than covered the expenditure. The result of all these operations was a deficit of 3,340,000*l.*, which he pointed out was due mainly to a falling revenue. Going into details of this falling revenue, he mentioned that the decrease in spirits alone was 660,000*l.* in Customs and 800,000*l.* in Excise, and the falling off in malt was 940,000*l.* At the same time, the consumption of tea, coffee, and other articles of this kind had not fallen off. Passing next to the figures of the coming year, he thus stated the estimated expenditure of 1880-81 :—

Permanent Charge of Debt	£28,000,000
Other Consolidated Fund Charges	2,757,478
Army	15,541,300
Home Charges of Forces in India	1,100,000
Navy	10,492,935
Civil Services	15,436,442
Customs and Inland Revenue	2,816,709
Post Office	3,420,404
Telegraph Service	1,210,736
Packet Service	710,468
Total expenditure	£81,486,472

This, he said, was less than the Exchequer issues of last year by 2,713,528*l.* The revenue of the coming year he stated thus :—

Customs	£19,300,000
Excise	26,140,000
Stamps	11,100,000
Land Tax and House Duty	2,760,000
Income Tax	9,000,000
Post Office	6,400,000
Telegraph Service	1,420,000
Crown Lands	390,000
Interest on Advances on Local Works and Suez Canal Shares	1,250,000
Miscellaneous	3,800,000
Total revenue	£81,560,000

This was an increase of 600,000*l.* on the Exchequer receipts of 1879-80, and, compared with the expenditure of the year, it left a surplus of 74,000*l.*, or a practical equilibrium. But the Probate Duties Bill, introduced a few days ago, he calculated would add 700,000*l.* to the revenue, so that the surplus would be raised to 774,000*l.* Before proceeding further, the Chancellor mentioned that a clause had been drawn, which would be inserted in the Budget Bill to abolish the exemption from the income tax enjoyed by the Civil Service Supply Association, without injuring the other friendly societies. Proceeding then to deal with the accumulated deficits, represented partly by Supply Exchequer Bonds, which he stated at 8,100,000*l.*, the Chancellor went at considerable length into details of the movement of the Debt, showing that the total amount of Funded and Unfunded Debt and Terminable Annuities on March 31 next would be 779,551,000*l.*, and contending that, though there was a net increase of 1,472,000*l.* in the total of

Funded and Unfunded Debt since last year, if repayable debt (in which he included local loans, Suez Canal Bonds, and the loan to India) were deducted, as it ought to be, there would be a net diminution in the actual liabilities of 2,877,000*l.* In like manner he showed that since the present Government came into office, notwithstanding the bad times and the war expenditure, the net increase of debt was only 268,000*l.*; but if the repayable debt were deducted, the result, of course, would be altogether in the other direction. Of this war expenditure, amounting to 12,285,000*l.*—viz., 6,125,000*l.* for the Eastern Question, and 6,160,000*l.* on account of South Africa—8,100,000*l.*, he said, had been raised by borrowing. Some portion of this, he anticipated, would be obtained from the colonies; but, without taking this at present into account, he proceeded to explain how he proposed to deal with it; and, after some general observations on the nature of the Floating Debt, intended to relieve uneasiness at its apparent growth, he explained a scheme by which six out of the eight millions would be converted into Terminable Annuities to last until 1885, when, as he reminded the House, there would be a considerable falling-in of Terminable Annuities. By an annual payment of 1,400,000*l.* it was calculated that these 6,000,000*l.* would be extinguished in 1885; and he proposed to obtain this partly by taking the 625,000*l.* now paid under the new Sinking Fund, and to add for five years 800,000*l.* a year to the 28,000,000*l.* which was now the Permanent Charge of the Debt. The combined effect of this operation and the addition to the revenue of the 700,000*l.* Probate Duties would be to increase the expenditure for 1880-81 to 82,075,972*l.*, and the income to 82,260,000*l.*, thus showing a surplus of income over expenditure of 184,028*l.*

The discussion on the Budget was taken on March 15, but in the circumstances it was somewhat mechanical and lifeless, being conducted with a sense that the attention of the public was directed elsewhere. There was difficulty at times in keeping a House. Many members had rushed off on election business, and those specially interested in finance knew that they would have other opportunities of criticism.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer's diversion of his Sinking Fund to the partial payment of the extraordinary floating debt, and his proposed reform of the Probate Duties, were the chief topics taken up. The whole object of the Sinking Fund arrangement for paying off a National Debt being to place each payment beyond the reach of accidents, and enable it to be made in years of adversity as well as years of prosperity, the Opposition critics had good ground of complaint that the means of reduction had been seized upon. Sir Stafford Northcote's financial reputation depended to a large extent upon the success of this expedient for the reduction of National Debt, and his critics were able to taunt him with effect upon destroying faith in a plan upon which he had prided himself, by treating his sacred fund as so much cash in hand,

to be used in emergencies. His reply was that the Sinking Fund had not been extinguished, but only turned for a period to a use not contemplated when it was created; but this answer hardly touched the point which his critics made against him.

The reform of the Probate Duties was chiefly objected to on the ground that it did not go far enough, and that the subject was too complicated to be dealt with hurriedly, and at a crisis which did not leave due time for its consideration. Mr. Gladstone said that he did not purpose to say anything on the subject except by way of protest. It was not in his power to check the career of the Government. He and his friends were entirely at their mercy. He commented particularly on the fact that the Probate Bill did not touch one of the worst abuses of the present system, under which an administration had to pay duty on the whole assets of an estate, without deducting the debts. Mr. J. Barclay, Mr. Childers, and Mr. Dodson spoke to the same effect, but no division was taken.

Very little attention was paid to the proceedings of Parliament during its closing days. One measure only attracted much attention, and that was a measure which had a direct bearing upon the coming election. Sir S. Northcote, when he announced the dissolution, had intimated that before Parliament rose he would ask it to deal with the question of corrupt practices at elections. In accordance with this promise a Corrupt Practices Bill was introduced, the main feature of which was the abolition of the restrictions upon the conveyance of voters to the poll. This practice, though prohibited by the existing law, was, nevertheless, persisted in, the law being systematically evaded; and Sir Stafford Northcote proposed to remove the prohibition. Very few members were left in town on March 16, when this Bill came on for second reading; but the Scotch members and the Irish members succeeded, by the energy of their protests, in securing the exemption of Scotland and Ireland from its operation. English Liberal members protested with equal energy, but in vain.

Friday, the 19th, was the last working day of the expiring Parliament. Significantly enough, the House, which had had to listen so much in the course of its existence to Irish grievances, was counted out during a debate raised by the O'Gorman Mahon on Lord Beaconsfield's letter to the Duke of Marlborough. The O'Gorman Mahon had asked the House to declare that it "highly disapproved the attempt of the Prime Minister to stir up feelings of hatred between England and Ireland for the purpose of furnishing an election cry to his followers, and regarded with indignation his flagrant misrepresentation of the loyal efforts of the Home Rule party to extend the blessings of constitutional government to Ireland." He denied that the Home Rule movement involved any disloyalty, or contained any proposal to destroy the empire. Mr. Sullivan, who followed the O'Gorman Mahon, maintained that the Home Rule movement aimed at closing the era of insurrection for Ireland. It was an olive branch held out

at some risk to themselves, by certain public men in Ireland, prominent among whom, it was only justice to say, were members of the Conservative party, in the troublous times of 1866; and never in his practical experience was there a movement more fruitful of hope for the peace and welfare of his unhappy country. The Chancellor of the Exchequer briefly replied to these speeches; and when an attempt was made to continue the debate, the Speaker's attention was called to the fact that there was not forty members present, and the House was counted out. Thus practically ended the Parliament which had met on March 5, 1874. "Nothing in the whole term of this body's existence," the *Times* remarked, "has graced it less than the close."

The session of the House of Lords ended with more dignity; in an evening of discussions on the Corrupt Practices Bill, the state of agriculture and trade, and the affairs of Afghanistan. The depression of agriculture and trade was brought under the notice of the House by the Duke of Rutland, who advocated a return to protection as a remedy, or the introduction of reciprocity if protection were impossible. Lord Beaconsfield availed himself of the opportunity to expound his views on the nature of the prevailing depression, and the possible remedies for it. "If the whole nation," he said, "chose to adopt a protection policy, nothing could resist that policy being carried into effect." Reciprocity, as on a previous occasion, he declared to be in his opinion impossible. On the question whether it was in the power of the Government to do anything to relieve the distress, he said that it appeared to him that there were many things which might be done to facilitate the improvement of the soil, and thereby benefit its occupiers. "Whether," Lord Beaconsfield went on to say, "we consider the question of removing the restrictions on its cultivation, or that most important point as to which I introduced in the other House of Parliament a remedy—namely, the securing for a tenant a complete protection for the capital which he has invested on the farm which he occupies—I think myself that before we can beneficially act to relieve and improve the agriculture of this country, the agriculture of this country must be in a normal condition, and that it would be most unwise in a moment of distress to hurry a measure when we are not dealing with the land of England in its usual state. I think it must be acknowledged by all that it is not so much competition, it is not so much local taxation, but what is infinitely more injurious and more powerful—namely, an almost unprecedented series of disastrous seasons—which has brought about the present unfortunate state of agriculture in England. That condition of the cultivators of the soil, however, is not a permanent one, and, as far as I can see, matters are tending towards improvement. All the evidences of nature that can guide us rather make us hope that we are about to enjoy a season of prosperity and abundance; and should this promise be fulfilled, the agricultural mind will be relieved from a great deal of the despondency and

distress which at this moment paralysed to a great degree the energies of the farmer. Then will be the time to consider whether we cannot alter many things in the relations of the farmer with the landowner, and deal with other matters which do not now beneficially act upon his condition. We require more data, more opportunities for examination, and more experience before we can come to any decided opinion as to the effect of the importation of foreign-grown corn upon our own produce. When the English farmer has been blessed with a harvest worthy of his industry, and when we have gained greater experience of the effect of the produce of other countries upon our own, then will be the time for us to consider a variety of measures which undoubtedly may not appear very important in themselves, but which will in the aggregate place him in a more advantageous and improved position than he now occupies."

When Lord Beaconsfield made this speech, the last word of his party for the time being to the farmers, the electoral battle had been in full progress for a week, all the leading members of the Opposition being fully occupied in various parts of the country with their indictment of the Government. Mr. Gladstone's speech at Marylebone on the 12th, before his departure for Scotland, marked the opening of the engagement. The Water Bill, the failure of which he treated as the main cause of the dissolution, and the readjustment of the Probate Duties—which he denounced as pressing unfairly upon personal property as compared with real property—were the chief topics of this speech. A passage in the peroration proved to be prophetic. "I cannot help hoping," Mr. Gladstone said, "that whatever the answer of the country may be, it shall be clear and unequivocal, and shall ring from John o'Groat's to Land's End. Don't let us have an ambiguous expression of the popular voice—to-day an election in one way, to-morrow an election in another; to-day Liberalism is up in good spirits, to-morrow Jingoism is up. It is better that Jingoism should have its way, and that the people, if they won't learn by reason—and they have had plenty of reason—should learn by experience, than that we should present to the rest of the world not one England, but two Englands; in fact, an England that does not know its mind, an England blowing one day hot, another day cold; one day wet, another day dry; something like what is said of our climate, and never maintaining that consistency and dignity of action which belongs to a great Power." This hope of a decided result from the General Election was far from being generally entertained. The common impression was that one party or the other would be returned to power with a small majority. Politicians and party-managers in the country were more hopeful of the prospects of the Liberals, but in London the utmost that was hoped for was a small majority. To predict a majority independent of the Home Rulers would have been considered a jest; and to predict what actually happened, a Liberal majority against

Conservatives and Home Rulers combined would have been considered too absurd even for that.

In his speech at Marylebone, Mr. Gladstone announced Lord Derby's definite secession from the Conservative party, and a formal letter to Lord Sefton explaining the reasons for this step was made public next day. "I have been long unwilling," Lord Derby wrote, "to separate from the political connection in which I was brought up, and with which, notwithstanding occasional differences on non-political questions, I have in the main acted for many years; but the present situation of parties, and the avowed policy of the Conservative leader in reference to foreign relations, leave me no choice. I cannot support the present Government; and as neutrality, however from personal feelings I might prefer it, is at a political crisis an evasion of public duty, I have no choice except to declare myself, however reluctantly, ranked among their opponents."

Lord Hartington began his campaign in North-east Lancashire at Accrington, on the 13th, in a speech which, according to the *Times*, "gave proof that he had attained a real skill in the art of controversial rhetoric," being "terse, direct, and clear in statement, successfully planting its telling points, and appealing to the strong parts of the English character." The most telling part of a speech which fully deserved this eulogium was a reply to the charge brought against the Liberal leaders of complicity with the disintegrating designs of the Home Rulers. Lord Hartington carried the war into the enemy's country, and suggested that the Government had deliberately tried to fasten this charge on their opponents with a view to getting up a good election cry. He could not, he said, bring himself to believe that the Water Bill was the sole cause of the dissolution, although, if the Government had in their minds any thought of dissolution when they introduced it, they "lent themselves to a most gigantic gambling job." Was it possible, after all, he asked, that the dissolution was "a preconcerted arrangement," and that the Government had intended from the first that the session should be considered to have done its duty when it had convicted the Opposition of "alliance with Home Rule," and "alliance with obstruction"? Lord Beaconsfield was an adept in election cries; and Lord Hartington thought that, looking back at the politics of the last three months, it was possible to see an election cry in the very process of manufacture. "Ever since the election at Sheffield," Lord Hartington said, "when the successful Liberal candidate received the support of the Irish vote—although he gave no pledges to the Irish or to the Home Rule section—ever since the Sheffield election I think we can trace the progress of a little plan which has been going on in the Conservative party and the Conservative press. A great deal was said after the election about the support which Mr. Waddy had received from the Irish, although, as I have said, that support was purchased by no pledges and by no concessions. After that the Liverpool election

was a godsend to those who were engaged in the little arrangement. From that moment the word was given that the cry was to be that an alliance has been formed between the Liberal party and the Home Rulers—an alliance for the purpose of disintegrating and destroying the British Empire. That was proclaimed in all the Conservative press; but we did not know yet how far countenance was to be given to it by the responsible leaders of the Conservative party. As soon as Parliament met we saw a still further development of this plan; we found that a gentleman had been put up to second the Address, a representative of one of the Orange societies of Ireland, Mr. Corry, the member for Belfast, who, instead of seconding the Address in the usual temperate language, devoted the greater part of his speech to a violent attack upon the Home Rule party, and the Liberal party, who were supposed to be in alliance. I took the liberty of altogether disregarding Mr. Corry's remarks. But a little later the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir S. Northcote himself, took up the same line, and said that Mr. Corry's observations were very much to the point, and that he should like to know, and the country would like to know, what is the attitude of the Liberal party in regard to Home Rule; and other speeches were made in the same debate, all to the same effect—all pointing to this supposed alliance between the Liberal party and the men who want to break up and dismember the British Empire." The cry for which the public mind was thus gradually prepared received its final shape, Lord Hartington pointed out, in the Prime Minister's manifesto. The introduction of the Anti-Obstruction resolutions, when no real business was intended, was, he suggested, part of the same plan: "if the Opposition could only have been got to join the Obstructionist party in resistance to those resolutions, then the election cry would have been a good deal improved."

Sir William Harcourt, Mr. Forster, Mr. Chamberlain, Sir Henry James, Lord John Manners, were all in the field with addresses and speeches on Monday, the 15th, Sir W. Harcourt's trenchant review of the foreign and domestic policy of the Government being one of the most powerful of single contributions to the force of the Liberal attack. The same day saw the beginning of an electoral campaign which attracted more than ordinary interest—an attempt made by Mr. John Morley and Sir Arthur Hobhouse to wrest the representation of Westminster from Mr. W. H. Smith and Sir Charles Russell. Mr. Lowe spoke at their first meeting, in Exeter Hall. "There were two roads," he said, "before the electors; one leading to safety and honour, the other to ruin and perdition. They had now to make their choice. Would they be led away by the cheap and puerile vanity of talking about the ascendancy of England in the Councils of Europe? Such talk meant empty, foolish, and shameful delusion; it meant boundless taxation and oceans of blood. If their rights were attacked, they would, he hoped, like their ancestors, know how to defend them;

and he did hope that the good sense and solid wisdom of the nation would guide it in reference to foreign affairs."

The electors had to make up their minds between such descriptions as Mr. Lowe gave of the Government policy, and such as that contained in the address of Lord John Manners, who held that it was "hardly too much to say that the peace of Europe depends to a great extent on the conviction entertained abroad of the resolve of England to uphold her present international policy." Lord John Manners also trusted "that in the new Parliament more opportunities may be afforded for the discussion of that class of measures than was permitted during the last three years by the transcendent importance of foreign affairs and the obstructive conduct of a few Irish members." Colonel Stanley, whose address was issued next day, used very much the same language. He refused to believe that his constituents were "prepared to reverse the policy which, by its firmness, had averted the spread of war in Europe;" and ended by saying that there was "one question on which there must be left no room for misunderstanding,—I shall offer uncompromising opposition to any scheme under the title of 'Home Rule,' which, whether by the aim to create a separate Parliament or otherwise, tends to weaken the union between Great Britain and Ireland."

Mr. Gladstone set out for his Midlothian campaign on March 16, addressing enthusiastic audiences wherever the train stopped, at Grantham, York, Newcastle, and Berwick. At King's Cross, before starting, he expressed confident determination of success. "I mean," he said, "not only to secure the seat for Midlothian, but my object goes so far as to sweep out of their seats a great many other men who now represent constituencies in Parliament, and to consign them to that retirement for which they are more fitted, and of which I hope they will make good use, and by reflection and study render themselves more entitled than they are at present to serve their country." Some comments were made on this boast; but when the results of the elections were declared, it was remarked as a curious circumstance, that at every halting-place where Mr. Gladstone made a speech, the Liberals gained a seat.

His first speech was made on the 17th, in the Edinburgh Music Hall. The passages in which he repudiated the policy ascribed to the Liberal leaders by the supporters of the Government, naturally attracted most attention. One of the first charges that he dealt with was that, if the Liberals came into power, they would at once make an end of all the engagements into which their predecessors had entered. "A more baseless fiction," he said, "never was conceived of man—never was embodied in words by his tongue or by his faculty of speech. We have no power to relieve you from engagements of honour and good faith entered into by the present Government by a summary process. However we may disapprove of them, however we may deplore them, however we may have striven to point out—not to you, because you

have not had a fair chance yet, but to them—their misdeeds, and to the majority of the House of Commons, which has been perfectly deaf to our arguments—however we may have striven to point out to them the misdeeds and the dangers of the course they have pursued, we must take the consequences; the country must take the consequences. Prudence, care, and diligence may do much in course of time; but whatever faith requires must be accepted.” He illustrated this energetic disclaimer by what was done by Sir Robert Peel’s cabinet, of which he was a member, in the case of the annexation of Scinde. “One and all, we felt that the act was an act done. We asked ourselves the question whether, by undoing it—as responsible before God and man, the question was asked—whether by undoing it we should or should not contribute to the peace, the happiness, and the prosperity of Asia. Disapproving it, condemning it, believing it to be bad from beginning to end, yet we saw plainly that the attempt to undo it would in all probability plunge Asia into disorder and into conflagration; and, therefore, the responsibility of governing that country was at once accepted by the Government of Sir Robert Peel.” Another allegation with which he dealt was, that “what was called the Manchester School was to rule the destinies of the country if the Liberals came into power.” This he emphatically denied, and expressed his own opinion of “the noble error” of the Manchester School. “Abhorring all selfishness of policy, friendly to freedom in every country on earth, attached to the modes of reason, and detesting the ways of force, this Manchester School, this peace party, has sprung prematurely to the conclusion that wars may be considered as having closed their melancholy and miserable history, and that the affairs of the world may henceforth be conducted by methods more adapted to the dignity of man, more suited both to his strength and his weakness, less likely to lead man out of the ways of duty, to stimulate his evil passions, to make him guilty before God for inflicting misery on his fellow-creatures. That is the fact of the case. But no Government of this country could ever accede to the management and control of affairs without finding that the dream of a paradise upon earth was rudely dispelled by the shock of experience. However we may detest war, and you cannot detest it too much, there is no war except one—the war of liberty—that does not contain in it many elements of corruption as well as misery that are deplorable to consider; but, however deplorable they may be, they are among the necessities of our condition, and there are times when justice and the welfare of mankind require a man not to shrink from the responsibility of undertaking it.” He referred to the action of his own administration in taking steps for the maintenance of the independence of Belgium, by undertaking, in the Franco-German war, to join against whichever of the belligerents should violate Belgian territory, as proof that it was a “ludicrous imputation” to describe the Liberals as a peace-at-any-price party.

These direct retorts to the favourite charges of the supporters

of the Ministers, coming thus early in the electoral campaign, were caught up and re-echoed by candidates all over the country. A reference to Austria in the same speech caused much comment, and led to a notable incident after Mr. Gladstone's accession to office. A report had appeared in the Vienna correspondence of the *Standard*—the accuracy of which was afterwards denied—that the Emperor had expressed to Sir Henry Elliot a hope that the elections would result in the maintenance of Lord Beaconsfield's ministry. Referring to this, Mr. Gladstone said to the electors, "If you approve the foreign policy of Austria, the foreign policy that Austria has usually pursued, I advise you to do that very thing; if you want to have an Austrian foreign policy dominant in the Councils of this country, give your votes as the Emperor of Austria recommends. What has that foreign policy of Austria been? I do not say that Austria is incurable. I hope it will yet be cured, because it has got better institutions at home; and I heartily wish it well if it makes honest attempts to confront its difficulties. Yet I must look to what that policy has been. Austria has ever been the unflinching foe of freedom in every country of Europe. Austria trampled under foot, Austria resisted the unity of Germany. Russia, I am sorry to say, has been the foe of freedom too: but in Russia there is an exception—Russia has been the friend of Slavonic freedom; but Austria has never been the friend even of Slavonic freedom. Austria did all she could to prevent the creation of Belgium. Austria never lifted a finger for the regeneration and constitution of Greece. There is not an instance—there is not a spot upon the whole map where you can lay your finger and say, 'There Austria did good.' I speak of its general policy; I speak of its general tendency. I do not abandon the hope of improvement in the future, but we must look to the past and to the present for the guidance of our judgments at this moment."

Mr. Gladstone was indicted by the *Times* for the extraordinary fervour of his language, as solemn "as if the issue of the battle of Armageddon depended upon the verdict of the country." "We can only," the *Times* continued, "hold our breath for a little, while these more than human interests and less than human follies and wickednesses are being described. It is difficult to raise ourselves to the state of excitement which seems requisite to do justice to an argument conducted in this strain, and we are content to sit still for a while and see what will come of it all." The *Times* steadily refused to believe that there was any feeling in the country at all in harmony with the strength of Mr. Gladstone's language. "The popular interest in the coming elections is very keen, but there is no overmastering movement of public opinion, like that which brought Sir Robert Peel into power in 1841, or Lord Palmerston in 1857, or Mr. Gladstone in 1868. The apologetic tone of responsible statesmen on both sides is a conclusive proof that there is no such change in the balance of

political power impending as has sometimes followed an appeal to the constituencies."

While Mr. Gladstone went on day after day addressing audiences in Midlothian, keeping the foreign policy of the Government well in the foreground, but dealing also incidentally with the Land Laws, Local Government, Home Rule, the National Debt, various topics, local and imperial, provoking from the *Times* the complaint that "if the Midlothian campaign continues as it has begun, the newspapers will have no opportunity of allowing any one else to be heard." The impression that his speeches were chiefly remarkable as phenomenal displays of individual energy, and exercised very little real influence on opinion, was by no means confined to the *Times*. Even in the Liberal camp itself, disheartened by a long series of Parliamentary defeats almost beyond hope of recovery, the confidently proclaimed opinion that he was damaging his own cause by his long-windedness and his indiscretions, wearying out the public mind with intolerable iteration, found a considerable number of easily convinced believers.

The Ministerial cause suffered not a little, in the first ten days of the struggle, from the fact that its leaders were tied to town by their official duties, although Mr. Cross, who was the first to take the field, made very light of Mr. Gladstone and his oratory. "He has gone to Scotland," Mr. Cross said, "to say that so long as breath is in him he will not cease to speak against the wicked actions of the present Government. He has begun his second volume, and I hope his second volume will be distributed as widely as the first; and I hope it will produce the same impression upon the English, Scotch, and Irish people. I am quite certain of this, that the more he speaks, the more determined will the country be against him and his policy; and I am certain that when the verdict has to be given, as it will be in the course of the next month, you Lancashire men—as you did in 1868, as you did in 1874, and as the country did in 1874—will say that you will not have his policy, and that you will not have his power." The gist of Mr. Cross's speech was that the great secret of the difficulties with which the Government had to deal in the East was "the fermenting of insurrection by Russian intrigue." Mr. Gladstone had asked why they did not go to war to prevent Russia from invading Turkey, if they were convinced that it was the ambition of the Russians to possess the Sultan's European provinces. Because, Mr. Cross said, "our policy was not one of war, but of peace." "Our great desire was peace, and we strove in every possible way to keep this country out of war." The Government defined the interests which they could not allow to be threatened by the progress of the war; and when Constantinople was threatened, they took action accordingly. "Whether we were in the right or in the wrong," Mr. Cross said, "I hope our policy has succeeded. Constantinople did not pass into other hands, and the Dardanelles was still open. If Russia had got possession of Constantinople

you would never have driven her out, and if the Dardanelles had been closed, I believe that whatever Government was in power at the time would have been hurled from office by an indignant country. The difficulties and the dangers were great, and although it may be said 'you could have done this, and you could have done that,' it is very well to be wise after the event. I am certain we did that which we believed to be right, and I believe that a grateful country will acknowledge that we did so, and Europe we know is thankful." But the danger was not yet past. Mr. Cross spoke in the strongest language about the designs of Russia. "I want to ask you and this country, do you believe when Russia advanced into Turkey in the way she did she had simply the benefit of the inhabitants at heart? I ask you whether you can credit the most tyrannical, the most arbitrary Government in the world with this new-fledged wish for the freedom of other nations, which she at the moment professed?" Further, "if Mr. Gladstone carries the country with him and gets a majority, the undoubted result will be that foreign nations will say that the policy of England has changed. Russia will feel relieved and will breathe more freely, for she will know that there is no bar to her ambition, and she will go on as she did in 1876 and 1877, and I, for one, will not be answerable for the result."

In a speech at Liverpool on the 20th, Mr. Cross repeated that the broad issue before the country was whether England was to maintain her position or not. "If the Opposition came into power, there was not a Government in Europe that would not understand that the policy of England was changed, that Russia might advance if she liked, and that the freedom of Europe was in danger." This argument, which was repeated in hundreds of speeches on the Conservative side, was reinforced by reports from abroad of the alarm and indignation caused among foreign governments by Mr. Gladstone's reference to Austria. With regard to domestic questions, Mr. Cross in the same speech urged that the Liberals could not carry any useful measures because they were not united. "At the present moment they were not a Liberal party, they were a party of atoms. The Home Rulers guided them. The greatest misfortune that could happen to this country would be that there should be a Liberal Government in office with a practically small majority in the House of Commons made up simply by Home Rulers from Ireland. If the Liberals could come forward with a majority without the Home Rulers, he would bow to them at once, but if not they had no right to come into office." Then who was their leader? Was it Mr. Gladstone or Lord Hartington? Lord Hartington could not lead the Liberal party, because it would not be led. Mr. Chamberlain had spoken of him as "the late leader of the Liberal party." "Lord Hartington would act in a different spirit from Mr. Gladstone, but he could not act for the Liberal party. It was Mr. Gladstone who was leading them into mischief, and, depend upon it, if they reversed

the policy of the Government by turning them out it was Mr. Gladstone they would return to potential, if not to actual power. From his soul he believed that there was not a more dangerous man to whom, in their own interests, in the interests of commerce, of trade, and of their position in Europe, they could possibly surrender themselves than Mr. Gladstone."

Sir Stafford Northcote addressed a somewhat tumultuous meeting in the Shoreditch Town Hall on the 23rd, the evening before the formal dissolution of Parliament, and seizing upon a subject the omission of which from Mr. Cross's speeches had occasioned some comment, appealed to the industrial classes to take advantage of "an especially good opportunity of promoting legislation which will be for the advantage of the community."

"It too often happens," he said, "that legislation of an important and valuable kind is interrupted and postponed either by some great constitutional struggle, such a question as a reform of the representation of the people, or the destruction or modification of some great institution, or else it is postponed by some agitated question of foreign policy which so far disturbs the peace of the world, and affects the tranquillity of the country, that it practically shuts out measures of more practical importance. But I venture to say that never was there a time more suitable than the present for dealing advantageously and equitably with measures of domestic importance. There is no likelihood of any great constitutional struggle, nor is it likely that the deliberations of the new Parliament will be disturbed by those agitating questions of foreign policy which have of late taken up so much of our time. This is a time, then, for good, practical social and domestic measures." Whether the contrast between the Chancellor of the Exchequer's expectations of a quiet time untroubled by any great constitutional struggle, or agitating questions of foreign policy, and the tone of the Prime Minister's manifesto, was accidental or designed, it did not escape remark. Sir Stafford Northcote read at the same meeting a telegram from Sir Henry Elliot, saying that Baron Haymerle was most anxious that there should be a contradiction in Parliament or through the press of the language attributed by Mr. Gladstone to the Emperor of Austria.

By the day of the formal dissolution, all the broad issues between the two parties had been placed fully before the country by their leaders, and election committees were in full swing. The comparative statistics of the number of contested elections, given by Mr. W. Saunders, in a narrative of the struggle issued shortly after the results were known, show how great was the political activity of the time. "In 1859, 101 constituencies were contested; in 1865, 204; in 1868, 277; in 1874, 199; in 1880, 352, or nearly double the average number." The number of county seats contested was a great feature of the elections, and was attributed, in some degree, to the example set by Mr. Gladstone and Lord Hartington. How slow Liberals were to believe in the possibility

of gaining any victories in the counties, may be judged from the fact that in one county, North Lincolnshire, the candidate, Mr. Laycock, retired from his canvass, came forward again a quarter of an hour before the nomination took place, and was returned at the top of the poll.

As regards the comparative activity of the different leaders, Mr. Saunders has computed that during the campaign, Mr. Gladstone made no fewer than fifteen great speeches; Lord Hartington twenty-four; Mr. Bright, six; Sir Stafford Northcote, six; Mr. W. H. Smith, six; Colonel Stanley, nine; and Sir William Harcourt, six; besides innumerable speeches on lesser occasions. Of Mr. Bright's speeches, the two which attracted most attention were the first which he made on his arrival at Birmingham, describing what the working classes of England owed to the Liberal party, and a less elaborate effort of oratory, a sort of familiar conversation with a deputation representing the licensed victuallers, which he received on the 20th. Throughout the country, with very rare exceptions, the solid support of the publicans, alarmed by the favour shown to Local Option, was given to the Conservatives. This support had been unmistakably declared before the 20th, and Mr. Bright reasoned with his interviewers on the folly of it from the point of view of their own interests. "Why," he said, "all this temperance feeling in the country is to your great advantage, if you would not rush into violent opposition to it. The temperance feeling is not suppressing your houses—not one has been suppressed by it—but is merely preventing the addition of numerous other public-houses to interfere with your monopoly, and it is preventing also the granting of licenses to low houses, and vulgar, careless, and improper men, and thus it tends to keep your business more respectable than it would otherwise be. The whole action of the temperance feeling of the country during the last twenty years, has been to improve the character of your trade, and lessen the number of low and bad houses, to give to your property a greater value, and to your business greater profit, and all that you are doing, in my opinion, is the mere blindness of men who, having in some sort a monopoly, fear, as all monopolists do, whenever it is attacked." "Now," he went on to say, "as we are all here together, although I may not be at all able to change your views, let me put it to you, why should you array yourselves against one particular party in the State? You may depend upon it, from all past experience, that the Liberal party, whenever it deals, if it ever does deal, with the liquor question, will not do anything that will be in a pecuniary sense unjust to your interests. What it deprives you of in the public interest it at any rate will compensate you for, and will endeavour to do justice, as it does to the whole country and to every interest. You may depend upon it it will not be unjust to the licensed victuallers and those who are concerned in the sale of these things, which unfortunately here it appears necessary in some degree to control." The leader of the deputation remarking

that it was no wonder the publicans supported the Conservative party, seeing that their very existence was at stake, Mr. Bright retorted that they were "more frightened than hurt." He told them that he "should leave them without any expectation that he had changed their opinion one bit," and whatever influence his persuasive eloquence may have had in Birmingham, where the feeling of the publicans was more divided than in other places, it probably did not much affect the solidity of the vote all over England.

One of the most interesting incidents in the campaign was the duel which went on day by day, for some time, between Lord Hartington and Mr. Cross in Lancashire. Mr. Cross was by far the most active of the Ministers in the contest, and went on the principle of carrying the war into the enemy's country. Lord Hartington in his replies to him showed a grasp of mind and a controversial readiness and vigour of which he had never before given such conspicuous proof. As the leader of the Opposition, all eyes were upon him, to gather, if possible, from his utterances, what was likely to be the policy of the Liberal party if the verdict of the constituencies should be in their favour. Mr. Cross challenged him to speak out, and he spoke out with a frankness and statesmanlike sense, which greatly increased his own reputation and helped materially to secure the confidence of the country for his party. When he resumed his canvass of North-East Lancashire on March 20, he grappled directly with the idea that a continuance of the Government in office was necessary to frustrate the ambition of Russia. After censuring the "almost Billingsgate terms" in which Mr. Cross had affirmed that Russia was only waiting for a change of Government to repudiate all the engagements on which she had solemnly entered, he went on to deal with the means by which it was believed that the Government proposed to keep Russia in check. "From hints," he said, "which they got here and there, one might suppose that the policy the Government were going to pursue, if their lease of power were renewed, would be some more intimate alliance between Germany, Austria, and England. He had not one word to say against Germany or Austria. Austria had been a power in the past with which England could have but little sympathy, but its character had of late years entirely altered; and there was nothing which would lead us to feel any distrust towards the Austrians now; but at the same time he doubted whether we could best contribute to the maintenance of peace in Europe by entering into these special and separate alliances. Of course it was the duty of England, when she could, to use her influence for the maintenance of European peace, but he believed she would be best able to do that by having her hands free, and not being entangled or hampered by any special or separate alliance with any power, however much we might sympathise with them."

Replying to this, in a speech at Southport next evening, Mr. Cross maintained that the insurrection in Turkey had been fomented by the Russian Government, and that the interpretation

which would be put abroad upon any change of Government by the elections, would undoubtedly be that England would withdraw practically from interference in European affairs, and that Russian ambition would not be checked. Once more he pressed the Opposition to say what their policy would be if they came into power. To this Lord Hartington answered in a speech at Padiham on the 25th. "If the Liberal party were in power, he might at least say this of what their policy would be—their policy would not be a repetition of that which, in their opinion, had so disastrously failed, but which the present Government seemed to think had so triumphantly succeeded. The Liberals would not stake the interests or the honour of England upon the maintenance of the integrity and independence of an unreformed Turkish Government. They would not treat the condition of those people and the relations of the Turkish Government to its Christian subjects as a matter which was only of interest to Russia and to Turkey, and in which we had no call to interfere except so far as certain definite interests of our own were concerned. They would not try to disturb and thwart the concert of Europe if by some happy providence Europe was united as to what should be done. On the contrary they would strive and do their utmost to promote that concert, and if that concert should again be happily established they would do the utmost that lay in their power to carry its resolves into execution." In Lord Hartington's opinion the Eastern Question would soon of necessity be reopened, and these were the principles on which he and his party would try for a solution.

On the subject of Afghanistan, Lord Hartington spoke at Bacup on the 29th. "He did not assert," he said, "that the Liberal party were prepared with a policy which would be satisfactory, nor which would at once undo all the enormous mischief done by the present Government. He would make a frank confession—If the Liberal party came into power they would adopt the same policy which the present Government would, if they dared avow it, like to pursue—namely, retire as soon as they could with as little loss of credit as possible, and with as little sacrifice of our real Indian interests as possible, from the false position in which the blunders of the last five years had placed us."

With regard to the reform of the Land Laws, and questions more particularly concerning the farmers, Lord Hartington said that the Liberal party did not wish to represent themselves as having particular measures to propose for the benefit of particular classes. But he promised that one of the first things that they would do if they were sent into office would be to reform the county franchise, and they were also prepared to revise the land laws, with a view to making traffic in land as free as in anything else. They wished to give the farmer greater security for his capital, and they would readjust local taxation in connexion with an amended system of local government in the counties. "Whenever the Tories," Lord Hartington said in one of his speeches, "had been out of office, they had heard a deal about the repeal of the malt

tax and the relief of local taxation, but when they came into power he would like to know what they had done. No doubt it would be said that the Liberals had been in power far longer than the Tories, and it would be asked what had they done for the farmers. He wished them to remember, however, that the tenant farmers had always given their whole support to the Conservatives. All he asked was that if the farmers would give the Liberals their support for one Parliament, then, if in the end they could show that the Liberals had done as little as the Conservatives, they could go back to their old supporters."

Lord Beaconsfield's manifesto had an unexpected effect upon the Irish vote. A counter-manifesto was at once drawn up by the Home Rule confederation, calling upon all Irishmen to "oppose the Minister whose policy towards our country is summed up in coercion codes, and who would jest at the starvation of the western tenantry amid the toasts and feasting of the London Guildhall." "In presence," the manifesto ran on, "of the atrocious and criminal manoeuvre which has now been attempted, the duty is doubly imperative. Vote against Benjamin Disraeli as you should vote against the mortal enemy of your country and your race." No pledges were to be asked of Liberals at the hustings; the plain instruction was given to vote in every case against the Conservative candidate. The result was that the Liberal party, although its leaders held the most uncompromising language on the subject of Home Rule, had the solid Irish vote secured for them. In the course of the ensuing session, the new Government was taunted by a Whig supporter with having solicited support in order that the Liberal party in Parliament might be independent of the Home Rulers; but the truth was that in the course of his candidature, Lord Hartington, while strongly protesting against any concession to Home Rule, was no less energetic in repudiating the government of Ireland by rigid repression without inquiring into the reality of Irish grievances. "The Liberal party," he said at Burnley, on April 7, "had always felt that, looking to the great and deep misgovernment under which Ireland suffered for so many centuries, Irish agitation and discontent ought to be treated with great patience and forbearance, and that before we resorted to measures for the repression of Irish agitation, or while we resorted to those measures, we ought to do the utmost to see whether the causes which had produced that state of things still remained, or were capable of being removed."

Wednesday, March 31, was the first day of the polling, and the result was a startling surprise to both parties. The Liberals gained 24 seats, and lost 9,—a net gain of 15 seats, in 69 constituencies. Next day the Liberal successes continued in very much the same proportion, and on Friday, the same tale was repeated. A net gain of 50 seats was chronicled on Saturday; the ministerial majority was swept away, and all hope of a reaction which might restore it out of the question. But the polling in

the counties was still to come, and in spite of their unexpected triumph in the boroughs, the Liberals hardly ventured to hope that in the counties they would do more than hold their own. The result of the county elections was a new surprise. The polling went on throughout the following week, and at the end of it, the net Liberal gains were reckoned at 99, with less than 30 seats remaining unfilled. When the returns for all the constituencies were completed, it was computed that the New Parliament would number 349 Liberals, 243 Conservatives, and 60 Home Rulers. The composition of the dissolved Parliament was, 351 Conservatives, 250 Liberals, and 51 Home Rulers.

Explanations of this startling reverse of fortune were, of course, poured forth in abundance. The inconstancy and caprice of democracies, the incalculability of the new element in the electorate, the influences of hard times against the Government of the day, were the favourite texts of the defeated party; while the other naturally held that the constituencies had answered with sound judgment to the issues placed before them. Those who had argued in 1874 that Mr. Gladstone's defeat was owing to the defection of the Moderate Liberals, were reminded of this, and asked to square it with their theory that the present change was the result of democratic fickleness. Superior organisation also claimed a share in the Liberal victory. Mr. Chamberlain, referring to a remark made before the elections that they would test the efficiency of the Birmingham or "Caucus" system, wrote to the *Times* pointing out that in the 67 boroughs where the caucus had been established, the Liberals had gained or retained 60 seats, and had sustained only 7 defeats. The farmers' alliance was supposed to have been influential in the revolt of the counties, and some amusement was caused by a correspondence between Mr. O'Donnell and Mr. Howard, in which the former claimed to be the founder of this alliance, though "never, technically speaking, a member of the association."

Speculations on the causes of the Conservative reverse were, however, soon forgotten in speculations on the result of the Liberal victory. One question immediately took precedence of all others,—was Mr. Gladstone, or Lord Granville, or Lord Hartington to be Prime Minister? That Lord Beaconsfield would follow the precedent which he had set in 1868, and which had been followed by Mr. Gladstone in 1874, and would not defer his resignation till the meeting of the new Parliament, was generally taken for granted, though there were rumours that some members of the outgoing Ministry wished to have an opportunity of once more defending their policy and challenging a formal vote of censure. But in the absence of the Queen on the Continent, the change of administration could not take place immediately after the turn of the elections could no longer be mistaken. For some ten days or a fortnight, pending her Majesty's return on April 17, the question of the premiership was keenly discussed. In the Liberal press,

though there was no disposition to deny the great services which had been rendered by Lord Hartington as leader of the party in the House of Commons, the feeling was all but unanimous that Mr. Gladstone was indispensable to the formation of a strong Liberal Administration, and there was only one office which he could possibly be asked to accept. The same thing was urged in the Conservative press from a different point of view; it was said that he had turned out the Ministry, and that he should not be allowed to escape from the responsibility of forming another.

But though there was a tolerable unanimity that Mr. Gladstone ought to be the head of the new Administration, it was still open to doubt who would be sent for by the Queen in the first instance, Lord Granville being the recognised leader of the Opposition in the House of Lords, Lord Hartington in the Commons, and Mr. Gladstone having openly severed himself from all official connexion with his party. The doubt was set at rest on the 22nd. Lord Hartington was sent for. Next day he and Lord Granville had an audience of the Queen together, and Mr. Gladstone was sent for. Late on Friday night it was announced that Mr. Gladstone had undertaken to form a Ministry, and that he would be Prime Minister and Chancellor of the Exchequer.

A curious feature in the excitement with which the process of cabinet-making was speculated on and guessed at was, that spies were set upon all the prominent members of the party, and their movements from club to club, and from house to house daily, almost hourly, recorded in the newspapers. A difficulty was believed to have occurred in regard to the share in the new Administration apportioned to the leading representatives of the Radical section of the party. All the first names announced had been members of Mr. Gladstone's previous ministry. Lord Granville, Secretary for Foreign Affairs; Lord Hartington, Secretary for India; Lord Northbrook, First Lord of the Admiralty; Mr. Childers, Secretary for War; Mr. Forster, Irish Secretary; Lord Selborne, Lord Chancellor. Mr. Gladstone, it was rumoured, did not intend at first to offer a seat in the Cabinet to any statesman who had not held office before, as if to mark his interpretation of the wish of the constituencies as being that the Administration which was rejected in 1874 should now return to power. Ultimately it was arranged, after negotiations during which Sir Charles Dilke's movements were narrowly watched, that Mr. Chamberlain should have a seat in the Cabinet as President of the Board of Trade, Mr. Fawcett being appointed Postmaster-General, and Sir Charles Dilke Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs. The other prominent leaders of the triumphant Opposition were placed as follows:—Sir William Harcourt, Home Secretary; the Duke of Argyll, Lord Privy Seal; Lord Kimberley, Secretary for the Colonies, with Mr. Grant Duff as Under-Secretary; Mr. Mundella, Vice-President of the Council; Mr. Adam, First Commissioner of Works. Mr. Bright had a seat in

the Cabinet as Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. Mr. Lowe went to the Upper House with the title of Viscount Sherbrooke, and Mr. Goschen shortly afterwards was sent as Special Ambassador to Constantinople. Lord Lytton resigned the Governor-Generalship of India as soon as the result of the elections was known, and Lord Ripon was sent to India in his place.

CHAPTER III.

Meeting of the new Parliament—Mr. Bradlaugh's claim to "affirm"—The Oxford election—The extraordinary error in the Indian Budget—Lord Granville's Circular Note pressing for the fulfilment of the Berlin Treaty—Mr. Gladstone and Austria—The Queen's Speech—Debates on the Address—Amendment moved by Irish Members—Forecasts of the session—The Bradlaugh difficulty—Attitude of the Opposition—Protracted debates—Reference to a Committee—Mr. Bradlaugh taken into custody—Escape from the Bradlaugh difficulty—The Irish difficulty—Mr. O'Connor Power's Bill—Relief of Distress Bill—Compensation for Disturbance Bill—Protracted debate in the House of Commons—Bill rejected by Lords—Prolongation of the session—Supplementary Budget—Abolition of the Malt Tax—Customs and Inland Revenue Bill—The Hares and Rabbits Bill—Employers' Liability Bill—The Burials Bill—Education Bills—Grain Cargoes—Seamen's Wages—Savings Banks—Post Office Money Orders—Hours of Polling—Local Option—Prince Louis Napoleon's monument—Mr. Gladstone's illness—Lord Hartington's leadership—Effects of rejection of Disturbance Bill—Mr. Forster's speech.

THE new Parliament was opened by Commission on Thursday, April 29. The first business of the House of Commons was the election of a Speaker. Mr. Brand was elected without opposition. The choice of the Commons having received the formal approbation of the Crown, the House met for several days in succession, in accordance with custom, for the swearing in of members, and the issue of new writs for the seats which had been vacated by Ministers accepting office under the Crown and by double returns. This business, generally purely a matter of form, received an extraordinary interest from the position taken up by Mr. Bradlaugh, one of the members for Northampton.

As Mr. Bradlaugh's admission to the House proved to be a difficulty not settled without many motions and angry, excited, and protracted debates, it is necessary to follow the various phases of the difficulty with some degree of minuteness. Mr. Bradlaugh presented himself on the third day of the swearing-in with a written claim to be allowed to make a solemn affirmation or declaration of allegiance, instead of taking the oath. Being permitted to state on what grounds he made this claim, he did so briefly: "I have only to submit," he said, "that the Parliamentary Oaths Act, 1866, gives the right to affirm to every person for the time being permitted by law to make affirmation. I am such a person; and under the Evidence Further Amendment Act, 1869, and the Evidence Amendment Act, 1870, I have repeatedly for nine years past affirmed in the highest Courts of jurisdiction in this realm. I am ready to make the declaration or affirmation of allegiance."

It was very generally felt, as the dispute over Mr. Bradlaugh's admission waxed hot, that the Speaker ought to have allowed him to make an affirmation at his own risk, leaving him to be sued in a court of law for the statutory penalties for sitting in the House without the statutory qualification, by anybody who considered the affirmation insufficient. But this general wisdom came only after the question had been discussed in all its bearings, and the relation of the Speaker and the House to the individual member had been more clearly apprehended. The novelty of the case took everybody by surprise, and at first everybody set to discussing whether Mr. Bradlaugh was entitled by the statutes to make affirmation as he claimed, without remembering that the right construction of the statutes was a question for a court of law. Instead of warning Mr. Bradlaugh that if he affirmed instead of taking the oath, he did so at his own risk, the Speaker declined to determine his claim, indeed, but referred the matter to the judgment of the House, thereby implying that the determination of the claim was a proper question for the House.

When the Speaker threw the matter on the judgment of the House, Lord F. Cavendish, representing the Government in the absence of its leading members, moved the appointment of a Select Committee, to consider and report their opinion on the construction of the statutes upon which Mr. Bradlaugh founded his claim. The Committee were not instructed to consider whether he ought to be allowed to affirm in all the circumstances; they had only to decide whether it was within the meaning of the statutes that he should be allowed to affirm. The idea that there was an authority outside the House whose function it was to settle whether a member had complied with the prescribed legal formality before taking his seat, was one of later growth; nobody, or very few people, thought at first of the function of the law courts as the interpreters of the statutes.

There was some skirmishing over Lord F. Cavendish's proposal, but it was supported by Sir S. Northcote, and the House on Monday, the 3rd, agreed to the appointment of a Select Committee. The House met again for formal business on Wednesday, and on Monday, the 10th, and there was more skirmishing over the names of the Committee. On Tuesday, the 11th, on the motion being made that the Committee consist of nineteen members, Sir H. Drummond Wolff moved the Previous Question, arguing that the proposal for a Select Committee to inquire into parliamentary oaths at that particular stage of the constitution of the House, was unprecedented and irregular, and was, if not an infringement, an evasion of the Royal prerogative. The ground taken by Sir H. D. Wolff at this stage was purely technical; he argued that the Queen's Speech declaring the cause of the summoning of Parliament was the true commencement of business. The House had met to constitute itself, and for the issuing of new writs. The Commons had been informed in the name of the Queen that when

this business was completed, they were to adjourn for a short recess, and that they would be made acquainted on their return with the reasons why they had been called together. Till the Speech declaring these reasons had been read to them, it was an infringement or evasion of the Constitution to appoint a Select Committee. Sir H. D. Wolff hinted also that it was to oblige the member for Northampton that the Government were acting with such precipitancy. The Attorney-General defended the action of the Government. The question of Mr. Bradlaugh's admission arose out of the business which they had been commanded by the Crown to undertake, namely, the taking of the oath. Sir John Holker agreed with the Attorney-General that it was quite competent to transact any business that was incident to the taking of the oath. Sir Hardinge Giffard took the same view. In the course of the short debate, Mr. Gorst and Mr. O'Donnell supported Sir H. D. Wolff against the opinion of the leaders of the Conservatives and the Home Rulers, thus in the first debate of the session foreshadowing the formation of a combination which later on was sufficiently homogeneous to be nicknamed the Fourth Party. The appointment of the Committee was carried by 171 against 74. The House thereafter adjourned till the 20th.

Sir H. D. Wolff's opposition to the appointment of the Committee, supported by the charge that the Government were straining constitutional forms to favour Mr. Bradlaugh, testified to the existence of a desire to damage the new Government by identifying them with that member's unpopular opinions. In private conversation Liberals were often taunted with Mr. Bradlaugh's presence in the ranks of their party; in fancy sketches of a truly representative Liberal ministry, Mr. Bradlaugh figured as Prime Minister. But in the Conservative press a more decorous tone was, of course, observed. The *Daily Telegraph*, indeed, accused the Government of "the open patronage of unbelief and Malthusianism," and remarked that "a Cabinet containing Mr. Gladstone and Lord Selborne was most curiously introduced to history as superintending the Committee and patronising the proceedings which had for their object to efface the Divine sanction from the business of the House of Commons." But there was none of this party extravagance in the *Standard*. The *Standard* proclaimed a sort of party truce till the members of the new ministry should have time to settle into their offices, and till it should be seen what they proposed to do. In one instance the *Standard* carried this abstention from partisan warfare to a remarkable length. Sir W. Harcourt's re-election at Oxford was opposed by Mr. Hall. The *Standard* strongly questioned the propriety of thus challenging so recent a verdict of a constituency, and of embarrassing public business by imposing upon the Minister of a great department the troubles of electioneering when he ought to have all his time at his disposal for mastering the details of his office. Only success, the *Standard* urged, could justify Mr. Hall's enterprise; but when it received

this justification, Mr. Hall being returned by a small majority, the *Standard* was still doubtful, and trusted that a proceeding so suggestive of party or personal rancour, would not be made into a precedent. The *Times* also made the Oxford contest a text for questioning the wisdom of the constitutional practice of sending members back to their constituencies immediately after a general election, when they accepted office under the Crown.

Sir W. Harcourt's defeat was seized upon by those who had referred the result of the general election purely to democratic fickleness, as a powerful corroboration of their opinion. "This unexpected shifting of public opinion," the *Times* argued, "will tend to confirm the theories of those who have declared the movements of large democratic constituencies to be incalculable." To the *Daily Telegraph* "it showed how very easily successful politicians in the recent general election may overrate the significance and security of their triumph." It confirmed what the *Morning Post* "had all along believed, that the success of the Liberals at the general election was superficial, and did not denote the real feeling of the country." On the other hand, the *Standard* held that "he must be a very blind and bigoted partisan who would argue that because Oxford had rejected Mr. Gladstone's Home Secretary, therefore the constituencies at large are beginning to recognise that they made a mistake when they placed Mr. Gladstone in power." The *Daily News* attributed the result to "pot-boy politics." Mr. Hall was afterwards unseated on petition, and a Commission appointed to inquire into corrupt practices at Oxford. Sir W. Harcourt was shortly afterwards returned without opposition for Derby, Mr. Plimsoll resigning in his favour. Another of the members of the new Ministry, the Scotch Lord Advocate, Mr. McLaren, was also opposed when he sought re-election from his constituency—the Wigtown Burghs. It was supposed that the unpopularity in Scotland of the appointment of a Roman Catholic to the Viceroyalty of India, had something to do with Mr. McLaren's defeat. He subsequently stood for Berwick, and was again unsuccessful.

The interval between the elections and the delivery of the Queen's Speech—occupied mainly with discussions of the probable tendencies of the new Cabinet and its probable duration, discussions which brought to light great variety of opinion, some holding that it was made to last, others that it must infallibly go to pieces the moment any action was resolved upon, some calling it too Whig, a mere resuscitation of the ghost of Mr. Gladstone's last Government, others anticipating mischief from its strongly Radical constitution—was diversified by several striking incidents. The conduct of the late Government was suddenly brought back for a moment to the field of remark by a memorable discovery. It was reported that instead of the surplus which the Indian Government had expected, when their Budget was made public on February 27, immediately before the announcement of the dissolution, Sir

John Strachey had found that he would have to make provision for a large deficit, and that this deficit was produced by an extraordinary miscalculation in the cost of the Afghan war. Attention was first called to the fact that there had been a miscalculation, in a speech made by Mr. Herbert Gladstone in the course of his canvass of Leeds. The amount was then spoken of as three or four millions. The causes of the deficit fall to be explained in another part of the "Register." People here were at first incredulous, and disposed rather to believe that there must be some misunderstanding, that the supposition of such a miscalculation arose perhaps from including in the cost of the Afghan war some item, such as the cost of the frontier railways, which had been referred by the Indian Financial Secretary to another account. But this doubt was soon dispelled. A Reuter's telegram from Calcutta, published on May 6, gave the contents of a despatch from the Indian Government acknowledging the error, and forwarding a memorandum from the Military Accountant-General, in which the whole responsibility of the error was taken by his department. The full extent of the miscalculation was not then known; it was not till several weeks afterwards that the disagreeable truth was ascertained that the Afghan war, instead of costing six millions, as Sir John Strachey had estimated, would probably cost at least fifteen. But even when the error was understood to be three or four millions, strong opinions were expressed on all hands that it was a most discreditable blunder, and people asked in bewilderment how such a blunder was possible. If it was rendered possible by the system of accounts, the *Standard* said, the sooner that system was reformed the better. A sharp turn was given to the discussion of the blunder by Mr. Fawcett's statement, on acknowledging his re-election for Hackney, that Lord Cranbrook was made aware on March 13, of the miscalculation, although the prosperity of India and the existence of a surplus were boasted of by Conservative candidates throughout the general electioneering campaign. This was at once angrily denied by Mr. Stanhope, in a letter which appeared simultaneously with an explanation by Mr. Fawcett that he had been misinformed. The telegram of March 13, only urged the Government to reduce the weekly drawings on India. It was not till April 8, when the elections were nearly concluded, that an explicit statement that Sir John Strachey's estimates had been largely exceeded, reached the India Office.

While the incident of the extraordinary error in the Indian Budget was still fresh, an announcement was made which stirred the political waters more profoundly. It was stated that Sir H. Layard had received leave of absence from his post at Constantinople, and that his place was to be taken by Mr. Goschen, the latter going out as Special Ambassador. What was the meaning of this change? Did the Government propose to reverse the Eastern policy of their predecessors? Why had they chosen as their representative a man whose reputation was chiefly financial, and who was as

far removed as possible from rash humanitarianism? Was Mr. Goschen a likely instrument to be used for tearing up the Berlin Treaty? Some answer to these questions was given by an announcement in the *Daily News* of May 7, that Lord Granville was about to issue a Circular Note to the European Powers inviting their co-operation in securing the execution of the unfulfilled parts of the Berlin Treaty.

This was the first region in which the new Government gave evidence of a distinctive policy. The Sultan had not fulfilled several of the most important of his Berlin pledges. The Montenegrins were not yet in possession of the territory which the Treaty had assigned to them. The Greeks had not obtained the promised rectification of their frontier. It had been stipulated that Armenia and the European provinces still left to the Sultan should receive self-governing institutions similar to those accorded to Crete, and that their organic statutes, drawn up by the Porte, should be submitted to the East Roumelian Commission. These stipulations were still unfulfilled. The first action of Mr. Gladstone's Government was to invite the other Governments of Europe to concert measures for obtaining their fulfilment. Was this action in agreement with their pre-election pledges? Was it a new departure? What was likely to be the result of thus reopening the Eastern Question?

The Opposition journals attacked the Government from two sides. In the first place it was urged that their conduct in office was inconsistent with their conduct in Opposition. They had denounced the Berlin Treaty; yet the first thing they did was to endeavour to get its provisions carried out. To this it was answered that what the responsible leaders of the Government had denounced was not the Berlin Treaty, but the apathy of Lord Beaconsfield's Cabinet in regard to its provisions for the decentralisation of the Ottoman rule. Concessions were made in the Treaty to the Sultan's subjects, but they had remained a dead letter. It was within the letter of the Treaty that no official in the European provinces of Turkey should be left dependent upon the caprice of the central authorities at Constantinople. The letter of the Treaty in short embodied the "bag and baggage" policy of Mr. Gladstone. But Lord Salisbury had made no effort to hold the Porte to the fulfilment of the Treaty.

The general public, however, were tolerably sick of these party recriminations. A more living interest attached to the other question with which the Opposition journals criticised the Government. Whether they were consistent or not, were they wise in rushing with such haste to press for the fulfilment of the Treaty? If Lord Salisbury had been apathetic, had he not been so for good reasons? Had he not pressed for the fulfilment of the Treaty with as much energy as was consistent with prudence? The Government were accused of rashness and recklessness in attempting to hasten the pace of the Turks. They were told that they ought not

to have reopened the Eastern Question; that they ought to have acted on the maxim of letting sleeping dogs lie. It was argued, on the other hand, in defence of the Government, that that could not be said to be reopened which had never been shut. The Eastern Question was not asleep; and nothing was to be gained by making believe that it was asleep.

One of the preliminary steps taken by Mr. Gladstone with a view to securing cordiality of action among the European Powers, provoked a great deal of bitter comment. This was a public apology for the language which he had used about Austria in the course of his Midlothian campaign. The diplomatic circumstances which led to this apology were not authoritatively made public; Mr. Gladstone's letter to Count Karolyi was published on the 10th of May without Count Karolyi's letter to Mr. Gladstone. But it appeared from Lord Granville's subsequent explanation in Parliament that Mr. Gladstone, being informed that his cry of "Hands off!" to Austria, and his assertion that nowhere had Austria done good, were still resented at the Austrian Court, had expressed himself anxious to withdraw his hostile observations, if he were assured that he had been misinformed as to the circumstances which induced him to make them. Thereupon the Austrian Ambassador assured him that the Emperor had never spoken against Mr. Gladstone as he was reported to have done; and also gave explicit assurances that the policy of Austria was not to go beyond the Treaty of Berlin. Mr. Gladstone then, in the letter which was published, expressed his regret that he should "ever have seemed to impute to his Imperial Majesty language which he did not use," repudiated the idea that he had any hostile dispositions towards Austria, and, with reference to his animadversions on the foreign policy of Austria, went on to say:—"I will not conceal from your Excellency that grave apprehensions had been excited in my mind lest Austria should play a part in the Balkan Peninsula hostile to the freedom of the emancipated populations, and to the reasonable and warranted hopes of the subjects of the Sultan. These apprehensions were founded, it is true, upon secondary evidence, but it was not the evidence of hostile witnesses, and it was the best at my command.

"Your Excellency is now good enough to assure me that your Government has no desire whatever to extend or add to the rights it has acquired under the Treaty of Berlin, and that any such extension would be actually prejudicial to Austria-Hungary.

"Permit me at once to state to your Excellency that, had I been in possession of such an assurance as I have now been able to receive, I never would have uttered any one of the words which your Excellency justly describes as of a painful and wounding character. Whether it was my misfortune or my fault that I was not so supplied I will not now attempt to determine, but will at once express my serious concern that I should, in default of it, have been led to refer to transactions of an earlier period, or to use terms of censure which I can now wholly banish from my mind."

"This is the letter of an English gentleman," was the Emperor of Austria's comment when the letter was submitted to him. But this was by no means the view taken of it by the Opposition at home. The letter was described by Lord George Hamilton as shameful and shameless; Mr. Gladstone was taunted with humiliating himself, and his country along with him. Many Liberal politicians also thought the apology indiscreet, and contrasted the manner of it with Lord Beaconsfield's repudiation, through a paragraph in the *Times*, of the application of his phrase about "arbitrary arrests and domiciliary visits" to Germany. Cooler heads, however, saw that in the explicit public assurances from the Austrian Government on the subject of their policy in the Balkan Peninsula, the Prime Minister had received in advance an ample equivalent for his apology. Lord Salisbury, while endorsing Lord George Hamilton's description of the apology as shameful and humiliating, sarcastically expressed his wonder that the Austrian Government was content with it, for, he pointed out, Mr. Gladstone had withdrawn nothing, and "only promised, in recognition of the assurance given him by Count Karolyi that Austria did not desire to advance beyond where she now stood, that he would not renew the accusation."

The error in the Afghan war estimates, Mr. Fawcett's mistake at Hackney, Lord Granville's Circular Note, Mr. Gladstone's apology, and "the Bradlaugh difficulty," as it began to be called, furnished exciting matter for political comment before the formal opening of Parliament. There were also some general indications of the Government policy which did not fail to cause remark. Sir Charles Dilke and Mr. Chamberlain spoke at Chelsea on the 11th, and Lord Hartington at the Devonshire Club on the 12th. The same note was struck in all their speeches, of warning the electors not to expect too much from the new Government. Lord Hartington spoke of the difficulty and embarrassment which confronted the Government in Europe, Asia, and Africa; said he stood aghast at the number, complexity, and intricacy of the problems of his own department; and asked his party not to form too extravagant hopes of what it would be possible for the Government to do during the short remaining period of the session. Mr. Chamberlain cautioned the Radicals against expecting that a Government representing every shade of Liberal opinion would move as fast or as far as the most advanced section would desire. "When men agree to work together, by that agreement they admit the necessity of some mutual concession and compromise." Upon this the *Times* commented that "there was one thing too strong for the most powerful Ministry, and that was, the facts with which it had to deal." The language held by Ministers was not surprising, the *Times* said, "but it would none the less remain a curious contrast that immense excitement and enthusiasm should be raised in order to bring a new Ministry into power, and that the moment it was there, the first duty of a Minister should be to allay this excitement

and prevent too ardent expectations being entertained by the enthusiastic supporters to whom the success was due."

There was one important matter of external policy in regard to which, even before the meeting of Parliament, bitter disappointment began to be expressed from the advanced section of the Liberal party. Why, it was asked, had the Government not recalled Sir Bartle Frere? The agents of the policy of the late Government in Turkey and in India were not to remain at their posts; was Sir Bartle Frere to be continued at his? He was the very embodiment of all that had been obnoxious in the policy of the late Government; the present Ministers, when in Opposition, had demanded his recall, and one and all had declared that he had proved himself unworthy of trust. They had attacked the late Government for censuring him, and yet keeping him in office as being indispensable for the successful execution of a policy which had been inaugurated; did they mean to keep Sir Bartle Frere at the Cape, and justify themselves by the plea which twelve months before they had denounced? These questions began to be importunately asked before Parliament assembled, and during the first weeks of the Session the conduct of the Government in keeping Sir Bartle Frere in office seriously strained the relations between the advanced wing and the main body of the Ministerial party.

The Queen's Speech was read on the 20th. The three great topics of Imperial policy, Turkey, India, and South Africa, were dealt with in the first six paragraphs. "The early and complete fulfilment of the Treaty of Berlin with respect to effectual reforms and equal laws in Turkey, as well as to such territorial questions as have not yet been settled in conformity with the provisions of that Treaty," was spoken of as an object to be attained in concert with the other Powers of Europe. "I regard," the Speech ran, "such a fulfilment as essential for the avoidance of further complications in the East." The despatch of an Ambassador Extraordinary to the Sultan's Court was next mentioned. The paragraph on Afghanistan paid a compliment to the gallantry of the troops and the "unremitting labours" of the Indian Government, lamented that the settlement of the country had not yet been attained, and promised that the efforts of the Government would be "unceasingly directed towards the pacification of Afghanistan, and towards the establishment of such institutions as might be found best fitted to revive the independence of its people, and to restore their friendly relations with the Indian Empire." With regard to the condition of Indian Finance, "the fullest information on this weighty subject" was to be produced. In South Africa it was announced that the project of Confederation was still being commended to the consideration of the authorities and of the people in the various settlements. "Supremacy over the Transvaal" was to be maintained, but in maintaining it care was to be taken to "make provision for the security of the indigenous races,

and to extend to the European settlers institutions based on large and liberal principles of self-government."

The programme of legislative measures was not extensive. The first in the list was a measure "for putting an end to the controversies which have arisen with respect to burials in churchyards and cemeteries." This measure had a paragraph to itself. The renewal of the Act for Secret Voting was also separately mentioned. Then came three measures to be brought under notice "as time may permit"—"bills for giving more effectual protection to the occupiers of land against injury from ground game, for determining on a just principle the liability of employers for accidents sustained by workmen, and for the extension of the borough franchise in Ireland." It was intimated also that it might be necessary to make further advances for the relief of the distress in Ireland.

The most important announcement, however, in this section of the Speech was that the Government did not propose to renew the Peace Preservation Act, which expired on June 1. It was their intention to "rely on the provisions of the ordinary law, firmly administered, for the maintenance of peace and order." It was understood that this decision was not arrived at without some hesitation. Mr. Forster made a special visit to Ireland in order to learn by personal inquiry what was the condition of the country. It was stated at one time that the result of his inquiry was to produce a conviction that the renewal of the Act was a necessity, but, whatever passed behind the scenes, the Government in the end resolved to allow the Act to expire.

The non-continuance of the Peace Preservation Act was cautiously criticised by the leaders of the Opposition. The Duke of Marlborough, on the ground of his special recent acquaintance with the condition of the country as Lord Lieutenant, expressed grave doubts of the wisdom of the resolution to which the Government had come. They were bound, he said, to show that there was an amelioration in the condition of the country as compared with 1875, and in particular that secret associations were less dangerous now than they were then. The Queen's Speech spoke of the Act as "exceptional legislation in abridgment of liberty." He denied that the provisions of the Act, as amended by the late Government in 1875, were an infringement of liberty. The provisions with regard to the seizing of newspapers, the restrictions on making and storing gunpowder, the closing of public-houses, and the arrest of suspicious loafers at night, had been repealed. What was then left, the late Lord Lieutenant maintained, was absolutely necessary for the maintenance of order. The power of compelling the attendance of witnesses, and the taxing of localities for the payment of compensation, and of special police force in cases of outrage, could not safely be dispensed with. He asked also whether the Government proposed to substitute anything for the prohibition in the Act directed against the carrying

of arms in party processions. If they did not, serious collisions might be expected to ensue.

Lord Spencer did not reply categorically to the Duke of Marlborough's criticisms. In effect, he reiterated the conviction of the Government that the provisions of the common law would be found sufficient for the preservation of order. They had nothing but the common law in the North of Ireland, where party processions were customary. But, he retorted, if the continuance of the Peace Preservation Act was believed by the late Government to be a necessity, why did they not provide for its continuance before the dissolution. "Probably the late Government felt confident in the result of the elections; but, even had the result been as they expected, were they quite sure they would have been able to pass the Renewal Bill in time?"

Lord Beaconsfield's criticism of the Queen's Speech took the form of a desire for fuller information on certain points. What was meant by an Ambassador Extraordinary? An Ambassador was an official known to the constitution; but what was an Ambassador Extraordinary. Lord Granville replied that Mr. Goschen had exactly the same kind of appointment, technically speaking, as was conferred on Sir Henry Layard by the late Government, when he was sent out as Special Ambassador. With reference to Afghanistan, Lord Beaconsfield was reported by the *Times* as having expressed surprise, "considering the position at which affairs had arrived when he left office," that "no satisfactory conclusion had been arrived at concerning the affairs of Afghanistan." But from the Hansard report it would appear that he said precisely the reverse, namely, that he could not concur in any expression of surprise at this fact. He was convinced, he added, that "if the policy of the late Viceroy of India be pursued, a prompt and permanent settlement will be made in the affairs of Afghanistan." Lord Beaconsfield, however, was curious to know what was meant by the "institutions" referred to in the Queen's Speech. "Was there to be a House of Lords created there of Sirdars? Or was there to be, according to the doctrine of some ardent members of the present Government, only one Chamber, and that of a representative character? What were those institutions to be? Were they to be County Boards?" "Institutions" were promised also for the Transvaal. What were they?

Lord Beaconsfield's chaff about "institutions" was resumed by Sir Stafford Northcote in the Commons. How, he asked, were we to give the Afghans institutions if they were to remain independent of us? Mr. Gladstone took up the gauntlet in defence of the word thus quizzed. "I apprehend," he said, "that when a patriarchal chieftain sat under an oak tree and administered justice, either by general consent or with an authority recognised by his people, he, sitting under the oak tree, was the institution of the government under which he lived. Therefore, if we are happily able to make arrangements, or to assist arrangements—for we are

not desirous to be the makers of those arrangements—but we wish to reduce to a minimum our part in them, and only to discharge the responsibility which in marching to Afghanistan we have incurred—if we can favour, concur in, or promote in any friendly manner, the establishment of regular order or rule in that country under authority which the people may be disposed to recognise, we shall have succeeded in accomplishing the formation of those institutions which, I am afraid, have to a certain extent puzzled my right hon. friend.”

The movers of the Address in both Houses used words which seemed to embody the thoughts of “coercion” floating in men’s minds as the probable issue of the new departure in the East. The Earl of Elgin congratulated the Government on being prepared to take “active measures” for the fulfilment of the Berlin Treaty; Mr. Albert Grey said that the only way of escape from calamitous convulsions in Turkey was to be found in joint pressure upon the Porte by the European Powers. Would the Government kindly explain what was meant by “active measures,” asked Lord Beaconsfield. “Putting pressure on the Porte is a very elastic phrase,” said Sir Stafford Northcote; “I hope it does not mean coercion.” The disinclination to coercion was by no means confined to the Opposition. The seconder of the Address, Mr. Hugh Mason, a representative of the Manchester School, “as an individual, ventured to think that the less the Government of this country interfered in the management of other countries, the better it would be for all countries.” Mr. Mason, “not wishing to cool the sympathy of this country with other races who were struggling to free themselves from bad laws or bad government,” was prepared to give moral but not physical support to such races. In Mr. Gladstone’s remarks upon this point, the notable circumstance was that he did not say that the Government would in no circumstances have resort to force. They were too conscious of the gravity of the results involved to resolve to use force without the strongest justification, and without being in the fullest possession of all the circumstances. With regard to Mr. Goschen’s mission, there were one or two practical questions—the Greek frontier and the Montenegrin frontier questions—demanding immediate treatment, and it was desirable that the Government should be represented by a man who had been in intimate and confidential communication with them. It would be Mr. Goschen’s duty to remove certain misapprehensions from the mind of the Porte; the most important of which was that this country had so profound and vital an interest of its own, separate from the other Powers of Europe, in the maintenance of the Turkish Empire, that whatever might be its conduct towards its subjects, and whatever its internal condition, it might always reckon in the last resort upon our ultimate support. The Government meant to act in concert with the other Powers of Europe; and, Mr. Gladstone said, there was every appearance that concert was possible in the Eastern Question. “So far as we

know, there are no developed signs of difference of views. There have been signs which have led to the inference of jealousy; but these signs have not been confirmed by such experiences as we have had. On the contrary, the assurances which have reached us from every quarter are in their nature satisfactory assurances."

On the subject of coercion Mr. Gladstone was again taken to task at the following sitting by Mr. A. Balfour. The Government apparently did not contemplate the immediate use of force; but did they intend immediately to use a threat of force? Mr. Balfour alluded to an opinion expressed by Mr. Gladstone before the elections that a threat of force would be sufficient, and expressed his alarm lest the Government should have no objection to threaten force, being under a firm conviction that the threat would be sufficient. To this Mr. Gladstone answered that "he held no practice on the part of a Government more culpable—if indeed it had ever been pursued—than that of resorting lightly to menaces, and pledging the honour of the country to those menaces, without the intention to carry them into execution."

Apart from questions of foreign policy, the topic of most interest in the debates on the Address was the Irish Land Question. Mr. O'Connor Power complained that no allusion was made to this question in the Queen's Speech, and moved an addition to the Address to the effect that the subject deserved the most serious and immediate attention of the Government. Mr. Gladstone's answer to this was, in effect, that the subject would receive the most serious attention of the Government, but that it was unreasonable to expect them when they had been only ten days in existence as an Administration to have so acquainted themselves with the details of so difficult a subject as to be in a position to make a declaration. Thereupon Mr. Justin McCarthy said that Mr. Gladstone was under a misapprehension if he supposed that the Irish people expected the question to be settled that session; what they desired was "two or three lines in the Queen's Speech couched in sympathetic terms," to let them know that the Government were interested in the question and were preparing a settlement. To this Mr. Forster replied—while protesting in the most emphatic language that the Government were fully alive to the intense importance of the Land Question—that it was contrary to custom to mention in the Speech from the Throne any measures which it was not intended to bring forward in the same session.

Mr. Forster, however, did not find it so easy to answer another conception of what it was that the Irish people really wanted. Mr. T. P. O'Connor gave expression to a demand, which attracted very little attention at the time, but which before the session closed led the Government into deeper waters than they had intended to venture upon. "It was a mistake," he said, "to suppose that the Irish nation expected from the Government anything like a large and exhaustive measure dealing with the Land Question. They wanted simply a measure *ad interim*. He did not ask the Govern-

ment to deal with the subject as a whole. It would be irrational for the House to expect them to bring in a comprehensive measure during the present session. But at the same time they did not wish to delay legislation until the people had disappeared from the land."

Referring to this, Mr. Forster said that Mr. O'Connor proposed that a Bill should be brought forward "for the suspension of payment of rent." Mr. O'Connor corrected him—"a Bill for the suspension of eviction." Mr. Forster thought this "was almost the same thing," and went on to say that "he was quite prepared to listen to any arguments which the hon. member by whom such a Bill was brought in might advance. He had no desire to prejudge the question; but would any hon. member on either side of the House suppose that it would not bring in, in its discussion, if brought forward by the Government, every branch of the Land Question, and every sort of consideration that underlay the relation of landlord and tenant?" Mr. Forster was right in his anticipation of what the Parliamentary result would be if such a Bill were brought in by the Government; but he probably did not at the time anticipate that he would soon after bring in a Bill for the suspension of eviction. Referring to the subject again in a debate on the second reading of the Address, he said that he "did not wish to give the impression that he would be able to support such a Bill; but in the present state of Ireland, in the present state of its representation, it would ill become him and the Government not to give a fair, full, and considerate hearing to any proposal that might be brought forward."

Nobody expected that the Irish difficulty would be upon the Ministry so soon. A session of quiet, unambitious work upon the measures proposed by the Government was anticipated. The *Daily News* anticipated that the main interest of the session would be concentrated on the Bills mentioned in the Queen's Speech. It was not a large programme, but it was a sufficient programme—a good earnest of the future from a Parliament likely to exhibit much zeal for work. The next session would be the crucial session. The clouds which gathered and burst upon the industrious, businesslike, zealous assembly, very seriously embarrassing the willingness of the majority to do useful work, were no bigger than a man's hand when the Address in answer to the Queen's Speech was voted. But they were in existence. The great "difficulties" of the session, the Bradlaugh difficulty, the Irish difficulty, and the "Fourth Party," by whose exertions these difficulties were inflamed, were visible in the germ from the first working day of the new Parliament, though no inspired seer predicted that the germs would grow to such dimensions.

The Bradlaugh difficulty was the first to come to the front. The decision of the Select Committee appointed to consider whether he had a right under the statutes upon which he founded his claim to make an affirmation was against him. This decision

was carried only by a majority of one, and the House need not have ratified the finding of the Committee; but Mr. Bradlaugh did not wait to see whether the House would do so or not. On the 21st, the second day after the reassembling of Parliament, he announced in a letter to the newspapers his intention of taking the oath, now that the Committee had given their opinion against his claim, and gave his reasons for doing so. He said that he considered it his duty to accept the mandate of his constituents, and if to do so he had to submit to a form less solemn to him than the affirmation he would have reverently made, so much the worse for those who forced him to repeat words which he had scores of times declared were to him sounds conveying no clear and definite meaning. He added, however, that in taking the oath he would "regard himself as bound, not by the letter of its words, but by the spirit which the affirmation would have conveyed, if he had been permitted to make it."

Mr. Bradlaugh presented himself at the table of the House on the 21st for the purpose of taking the oath or having it administered to him. Sir H. Drummond Wolff interposed, and objected to the administration of the oath to Mr. Bradlaugh, who was thereupon ordered to withdraw till the objection had been heard and decided upon. The ground stated by Sir H. D. Wolff in the resolution which he then moved was that Mr. Bradlaugh had previously claimed the right of making an affirmation, referring to certain statutes, and that the presiding Judge at a trial, acting under these statutes, had been satisfied that an oath would have no binding effect on his conscience. By the common law of England, Sir H. D. Wolff argued, an atheist is not entitled to take an oath. That Mr. Bradlaugh was an atheist, he showed by quoting from a book in which he had described himself as "a propagandist of Atheism." He referred also to Mr. Bradlaugh's own admission in his letter to the papers. "Is the House," he asked, "to allow that formality now to be gone through which the hon. member himself avows will be a mere formality and nothing more?"

The motion was seconded by Mr. Alderman Fowler, who presented a petition, influentially signed by London merchants and bankers, praying that no alteration should be made in the law and customs of the realm for the purpose of enabling one who denied the existence of God to sit in Parliament.

But what was the law and custom of the realm? Was the House of Commons empowered by the law to prevent an atheist from taking the oath? Mr. Gladstone proposed the appointment of a Select Committee to consider and report upon this difficult and delicate question. Had the House any right, founded on precedent or otherwise, to prevent a duly elected member from taking the oath which the law prescribed? In making this motion for a Committee to consider the competence of the House in the matter, Mr. Gladstone pointed out that the question immediately raised by Mr. Bradlaugh's demand to be allowed to take the oath was not

whether atheists should or should not be excluded from the House of Commons. That was a political and constitutional question. The House might, if it chose, pass a resolution that Mr. Bradlaugh, on the ground of his atheism or on the ground of his political opinions, be excluded from the House as being not in a condition to fulfil his duty. But the question here raised was not one of directly excluding him from the House, but of interfering to prevent him from taking the oath. Was the House competent to do this? The obligation of taking the oath before taking his seat was not an obligation imposed by the House of Commons alone, but a statutory obligation. Mr. Bradlaugh presented himself in fulfilment of a duty imposed by statute. If he took the oath in a manner or under circumstances not acquitting him of that statutory duty, he was open to prosecution and to penalties recoverable in the Courts of Justice. But if the House interfered to prevent him from fulfilling his statutory duty, would they be acting within their competence? In dealing with statutory subject-matter, the House was treading on delicate ground, liable at every step to have its proceedings questioned, and therefore Mr. Gladstone proposed to refer the question of the competence of the House to a Select Committee.

The Opposition, however, declined to proceed in this cautious manner. Amidst vociferous cheers from his own side, Mr. Gibson maintained that the House was in a position to decide at once against Mr. Bradlaugh's claim, and did not need the assistance of a Select Committee. He spoke at length about Mr. Bradlaugh's opinions, and his ostentatious declaration of them. If he had presented himself in the crowd of members he might have taken the oath without any observation; but, by refusing in the first place to take the oath, he had thrown the responsibility upon them. "Could they allow him to ignore all that, and to come up as if nothing had happened?" If he had taken the oath, after declaring that it would have no binding effect upon his conscience, would there not have been a thrill of horror and indignation through the House, and would not the unanimous conscience of the House have declined to allow itself to be so openly outraged? Ignoring Mr. Gladstone's argument that the ceremony of taking the oath was not one of the forms of the House, but an obligation imposed by statute, he "reminded the right hon. gentleman that all Courts of Justice had an inherent control and jurisdiction over their own proceedings and forms; and he held that when one of the most solemn forms of the House was about to be outraged and treated in a way which a great many members would regard as a kind of blasphemy, it could not be suggested that there was not an inherent power in that great assembly to interfere and prevent such an occurrence taking place."

Sir Stafford Northcote supported Sir H. D. Wolff and Mr. Gibson. He failed to see in what way the deliberations of a Committee were to assist them in dealing with the question. The

question, he said, was this: "Are we, who recognise an oath as a solemn and religious act, prepared to admit that a member who has declared that he will take the oath, knowing it to be an idle and meaningless form, should be allowed to do so with our consent and approbation?" "We cannot," Sir Stafford held, "make ourselves parties to its being taken in a manner and under circumstances which render it a really ridiculous and unworthy proceeding." Like Mr. Gorst, the leader of the Opposition took for granted that the House made itself a party to Mr. Bradlaugh's profanation of the oath by allowing him to take it; that is to say, he took for granted the legal competence of the House to interpose.

Before the debate on the subject was adjourned, Mr. Bright made an eloquent appeal to the House to discuss the question simply as a question of right and a question of law, and not with reference to religious views. Was the House, he asked, to decide by a multitudinous vote that there was no question of law involved, and that it would have no legal opinion, no reference to a Committee of judicious and eminent members, on the point? And after refusing to allow Mr. Bradlaugh to take the oath, what did they propose to do? Would they declare his seat vacant? The electors of Northampton were cognisant of Mr. Bradlaugh's views when they chose him as their representative, and they would probably elect him again. Mr. Bright referred to the case of Wilkes as an instance of the inconvenience and trouble of a contest between the House of Commons and a particular constituency.

Mr. Walter also supported the reference to a Committee, although he confessed that if it were simply a question whether Mr. Bradlaugh should be permitted to go to the table and take an oath to which he had openly declared he attached no value he, for one, would decline to sanction his doing so. But he was of opinion that the time had come when they should consider whether their allegiance to the Crown was strengthened by an oath, and whether it would not be better to require of every member a simple affirmation. He voted for a Committee solely in the hope that its deliberations would tend to that conclusion.

The adjournment was consented to to afford members time for consideration, but when the debate was resumed on the 24th the House did not seem to have arrived in the interim at a clearer conception of the question at issue. The debate was long and excited. Half the members who spoke implored the House to approach the question in a judicial spirit; but very different views were expressed as to what the question really was. Mr. Willis was one of the few speakers who recognised that the question of the competence of the House to interfere was involved. He maintained that it was begging the question to ask whether the House should allow its forms to be outraged. He denied that the form was the House's form. It was imposed by statute. If the House claimed the right to consider the state of mind of a member presenting himself to take the oath, the right might be exercised in

other cases than that of Mr. Bradlaugh. The oath was not, as a matter of statute, administered by the House, or by the Speaker, or by the Clerk. A member could administer the oath to himself, and it was not for the House to stand between him and his fulfilment of a statutory duty.

But this technical contention had to be delivered to an assembly by no means in a temper to listen to a technical exposition. Mr. Willis's exposition of the statutes had a clamorous audience. The Opposition were eager to settle the matter at once by what Lord Randolph Churchill called "the unerring instinct of the House of Commons." Speaker after speaker denounced Mr. Bradlaugh's opinions, repudiated the advice of lawyers, and maintained that the question ought to be determined on the broad constitutional ground that a declared Atheist could not take an oath. One member went as far as to say that "the present was an opportunity for those who were on the side of Atheism, irreligion, and immorality, to vote in one direction," when he was called to order by the Speaker. The determination of the Opposition to have Mr. Bradlaugh's claim decided off-hand, without the intervention of a Committee, was not weakened by the fact that several members on the Government side who spoke in favour of the reference to a Committee at the same time expressed a strong opinion that Mr. Bradlaugh had, by his act in denying that the invocation in the Oath had for him any meaning, debarred himself from swearing at the table of the House.

Sir H. D. Wolff's resolution was negatived by 289 to 214, but the dispute over the appointment of the Committee did not end there. It was objected that the terms of the reference proposed by Mr. Gladstone, narrowing the matter laid before the Committee to the simple question of competence, were too precise. An amendment was drafted by the Attorney-General which recited the circumstances of Mr. Bradlaugh's original demand to make an affirmation, the report of the Select Committee thereupon, and his subsequent claim to be allowed to take the oath; and referred it to the Committee to decide whether, in these circumstances, it was competent for the House to interpose. Then another amendment, worded by Mr. Watkin Williams, was proposed and adopted, the object of which was to enable the Committee to take cognisance of all the facts and circumstances connected with Mr. Bradlaugh's claim. The terms of the reference being finally settled, there was another debate on the 28th over the names of the Committee, the Opposition complaining that they were not fairly represented; and yet another on the 31st, upon a motion by Sir W. Barttelot. The *Times* expressed its regret that a proposal, "unobjectionable as it was in substance, should have retarded the removal of the controversy to a calmer region, and should have run the risk of augmenting, by another exciting and rambling debate, the intemperate heat which had already accumulated around a subject specially demanding cool consideration."

Once fairly before the Committee, the subject received cool consideration enough. Reporters were admitted, and Mr. Bradlaugh appeared to plead his own case and to submit to cross-examination. The search for precedents was quickly exhausted. There were none either for interposing between Mr. Bradlaugh and the taking of the complete oath, or for allowing him to take the oath when he had declared that it would not be binding on his conscience. But Mr. Bradlaugh maintained that he had never said the oath would not be binding on his conscience; he had only said that it would not be more binding than an affirmation. "The whole of the oath," he said, "if taken by me, would be binding on my conscience. The law has not split up the formula into parts, and I decline to do what the law does not."

The Committee held several sittings, and in the end decided by a large majority that Mr. Bradlaugh could not be allowed to take the oath, but appended a recommendation that he should be allowed to make an affirmation at his own risk, subject, that is to say, to the penalties recoverable for taking his seat without the statutory qualification. The prolonged conflict then entered upon a new stage, and in the course of the next few days took more than one startling turn. Mr. Labouchere, the sitting member for Northampton, moved on June 21 that Mr. Bradlaugh be admitted to make an affirmation or declaration, contending in a clear and pointed speech that he had a statutory right to do so if he pleased. Sir Hardinge Giffard moved, as an amendment, that Mr. Bradlaugh be not permitted either to make an affirmation or to take the oath. An exciting debate followed, extending over two nights—in the main a repetition of the previous debates on Mr. Bradlaugh's case. The legal aspects of the case were again discussed, and the religious antipathy to Mr. Bradlaugh's admission was expressed even more forcibly than before. "If I were to assent to the proposals of Mr. Labouchere," Mr. R. N. Fowler said, "I should be recreant to my country, my Sovereign, and my God." Another member hoped that Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright, whom he knew to be religious men, would not "throw their shield over an infidel blasphemer." Both the members thus appealed to spoke in the course of the debate, Mr. Bright on the first evening, Mr. Gladstone on the second, and both made eloquent appeals on behalf of toleration. Incidentally Mr. Bright raised a storm by saying that "to a large extent the working people of the country do not care any more for the dogmas of Christianity than the upper classes care for the practice of that religion." Mr. Gladstone, being asked why the Government did not make a new law under which Mr. Bradlaugh might be admitted, said the reason was that they believed the existing law was sufficient, and that the House would override the law, as they conceived it, if it refused to allow Mr. Bradlaugh to affirm. Mr. Gladstone admonished the House of the impropriety and the danger of entering into a conflict with the constituency which had returned Mr. Bradlaugh.

But the majority of the House were deaf to all appeals, whether from within or without, and Sir H. Giffard's amendment was carried by 275 to 230. About thirty Liberals voted against Mr. Labouchere's resolution, and a still larger number abstained from voting. The majority of the Home Rulers voted against the resolution, but Messrs. Parnell, Biggar, and T. P. O'Connor voted in the minority. There were many Scotch members among those who abstained from voting.

Next day, the 23rd, the evening papers contained the news that Mr. Bradlaugh had been taken into the custody of the Serjeant-at-Arms for defying the authority of the House. He presented himself at the table and claimed again the right to take the oath. The resolution of the previous day was read to him, and he was ordered to withdraw. Before withdrawing, he asked whether he might be heard before the resolution was put in force. On Mr. Labouchere's motion the House consented to hear him at the bar. He made an impressive speech of some twenty minutes' length, insisting upon his right to take the oath, and deprecating a conflict between the House and his constituents. Mr. Labouchere then moved that the vote of the previous day should be rescinded, but, on Mr. Gladstone's advice, withdrew the motion. Thereafter Mr. Bradlaugh, being called in to hear the decision of the House on his claim to take the oath, refused to obey the Speaker's order to withdraw. "With great respect, Sir," he said, "I refuse to obey the orders of the House, which are against the law." He was then removed by the Serjeant-at-Arms, but immediately returned, saying that he admitted the right of the House to imprison him, but admitted no right on the part of the House to exclude. On the motion of Sir Stafford Northcote, Mr. Bradlaugh was taken into the custody of the Serjeant-at-Arms. Mr. Gladstone refused to move, but did not oppose Sir Stafford's motion; he had advised the House, the House had not taken his advice, and he left it to the Leader of the Opposition to take such steps as were necessary in the difficulty into which he had led them.

There was much excitement when the result was known, and much speculation as to what would happen next. It was announced next day by an afternoon paper that a friend of Mr. Bradlaugh's would move for his release; but to everybody's surprise a motion for his release was next day made by Sir Stafford Northcote, and carried, although Mr. Labouchere announced that the first use Mr. Bradlaugh would make of his liberty would be to return to the House and claim his rights as the representative of Northampton. Mr. Bradlaugh did not make this use of his liberty, and on the 1st of July the difficulty between the constituency and the House was removed, for the time at least, by the passing of a resolution that every person claiming to be a person permitted by law to make an affirmation instead of taking the oath should be allowed to do so, subject to any liability by statute. This resolution, moved by Mr. Gladstone, and opposed by Sir S. Northcote on the ground that it

virtually rescinded the previous resolution, was carried after a long debate by 303 to 249.

By the time this stumbling-block in the way of steady legislative business was removed, another and a larger subject appeared to ruffle the course of debate. Deeper waters were stirred by the new difficulty. Mr. Bradlaugh's case had revealed the religious temper of the new Parliament; its tendency on questions affecting the rights of property was now to be put to the proof. We have seen how on the first night of the session Mr. Forster replied to Mr. O'Connor's suggestion of an *ad interim* Bill to prevent the eviction of Irish tenants. The subject was soon brought up again in the form of a short Bill of the kind that the Irish members desired. This Bill was introduced by Mr. O'Connor Power, and had for its object the amendment of the Land Act of 1870, by repealing those portions of the 9th section of the Act which limited the discretion of the Courts in awarding compensation for disturbance in cases of ejectment for non-payment of rent. Under this section, the Court had no power to award compensation when an evicted tenant owed a year's rent, unless the Court was of opinion that the rent had been raised to an "exorbitant" figure. The object of the promoters was to secure that compensation should be awarded in all cases; their contention being that the restriction upon compensation practically nullified the tenant's interest in the soil conferred by the Land Act of 1870, the landlord having only to raise the rent to a figure which the tenant could not pay, or refuse to lower it in bad years, in order to be at liberty to evict the tenant without compensation. This contention was urged by various speakers when the Bill was read a second time on the 4th of June. The debate came on unexpectedly, and Mr. Forster gave this as a reason for not going into the details on which the demand for legislation was rested, but he "candidly stated that he was not prepared to oppose the principle of the Bill." Before the debate was adjourned, Mr. T. P. O'Connor and Mr. Parnell urged the acceptance of the proposal upon the Government as, "in the true sense of the word, a Bill for the relief of the distress in Ireland," and as supplying "a most valuable method of peace preservation."

Mr. Forster had asked for time for the Government to consider what they would do in regard to this demand for the abolition of compensated eviction in cases of non-payment of rent. A week or more passed, and he was pressed to say what conclusion the Government had come to. Then on the 15th of June he announced that the Government, in consequence of the prevailing distress, would propose "to enlarge the discretionary powers of the County Court Judge, so that he might, under certain circumstances, give compensation to tenants in certain districts who were ejected for non-payment of rent." For this purpose he would propose a new clause in the Relief of Distress Bill.

We may as well say here what was the nature and what were the fortunes of the Relief of Distress Bill, which afterwards at-

tracted very little attention in the excitement caused by the new proposal. It was nominally an amendment of the Relief Act of the previous session, and went, in the main, upon the lines of that measure. Its main provision was to authorise the employment of 750,000*l* out of the Irish Church surplus in loans to landlords and others for relief works, on the same conditions as in the previous Act. This provision was attacked by Mr. Arthur Arnold and several Irish members as tending more to the relief of the landowners than of the distressed population. Mr. Parnell objected strongly to granting any more loans to landlords, and also to granting loans out of the Church surplus. Mr. Forster's answer was that a great part of the money had been already lent under the Act of the late Government. They had been authorised to lend 750,000*l*., but applications for a larger amount had been made and granted. The present Government had no choice therefore but to ask the House for more money or break faith with those who had applied for loans. "It was too late to change the lines of action already taken. It was too late to adopt loans to tenants instead of loans to landlords." Mr. Forster, however, showed himself willing to make concessions to the representations of Irish members, introducing a grant of 200,000*l*. in aid of out-door relief, imposing a limit for the completion of relief works, and increasing the grant for fishery piers from 30,000*l*. to 45,000*l*. By these conciliatory concessions, the measure was passed in comparatively short time, the work in Committee being done at two sittings, July 3rd and July 12th.

But meantime the clause which it had been proposed to incorporate with the Relief Bill had a much more stormy career as a separate measure. Hostility to it was declared from the moment of its announcement. When an adjourned debate on the second reading of the Relief Bill was resumed, on the 17th of June, Mr. Chaplin proposed the further adjournment of the debate on the ground that the House had not had sufficient time to consider the new clauses. An attempt was made to prevent him from discussing this clause on the ground that it was to be moved in Committee, and that it was out of order to refer to the clauses of a Bill on the second reading; but the Speaker ruled that "a most unusual course had been taken with this clause," and that the Bill in its general principles could not properly be discussed without reference to it. Mr. Forster thereupon announced that he withdrew it, and would introduce it as a separate measure.

Hereafter the new clause was known as the Irish Compensation for Disturbance Bill. Mr. Chaplin, in his censure of it as a Relief Bill, stated all the main objections that were urged against it afterwards in various forms and with heated iteration. He taunted Mr. Forster with having said on the first day of the session that a Government could not deal with the subject without bringing in every branch of the Land Question, and without having a knowledge of the details of the actual condition of the country so as to

avoid mistakes. He reminded Mr. Forster of his saying that mistakes, even of details, might throw the whole matter into confusion, and do a great deal more harm than good." "With respect to the nature of the clause, it seemed to him that it was mere sheer and simple confiscation." "The Government must not ask him to join in their cheap generosity, by which they were going to relieve the distress of one class in Ireland by transferring to them the property of another class."

Mr. Forster reserved his explanation and defence of the measure for the second reading, which was proposed on June 25. He started from Mr. Chaplin's criticism that the Bill "embodied all the worst and most noxious features of the Land Act of 1870," using this as an occasion for saying that it was brought in to carry out the spirit of the Land Act, and that it was required as a temporary modification of that Act, under the special circumstances of the time. The Land Act, he said, not only legalised the Ulster Tenant Right and gave compensation to tenants all over Ireland for unexhausted improvements, but the 3rd section also recognised on the part of the tenant a certain interest in his holding—an interest which might be called property and goodwill. That was to say, the tenant under that Act could not be turned out on the expiry of his tenancy at the mere pleasure of his landlord; he had to be compensated. But there was an exception to this. No compensation was to be given to tenants when they were evicted for non-payment of rent. And the question raised by the Bill now proposed was whether, under the special circumstances of the year and for the relief of the distressed districts, this exception should not itself be modified.

Mr. Forster urged with all possible emphasis that the Government had taken the utmost care in providing for the relaxation of this exception. In the first place it was temporary; the operation of the measure was limited to the end of 1881. Secondly, the defaulting tenant, if evicted, was to be entitled to compensation only under stringent conditions: 1st, if it should appear to the County Court Judge that the tenant was unable to pay his rent; 2nd, that he was unable to do so, not from thriftlessness or idleness, but on account of the distress arising from the bad harvest of this and the two preceding years; 3rd, that he was willing to continue in his tenancy on just and reasonable terms as to rent, and arrears of rent and otherwise; 4th, that these terms were unreasonably refused by the landlord.

Mr. Forster further pointed out that where Ulster tenant-right prevailed, the tenant was entitled to a larger compensation than a County Court Judge could give any tenant under this Bill. He used the rights of the tenant in Ulster further to make intelligible the strength of the feeling that must be excited in other parts of Ireland if tenants were evicted for non-payment of rent without any compensation at all. Besides, he urged that the proposed Bill would do for the tenant very little more than the Land Act of

1870 would have done, if it had become law in the form in which it passed the Commons, and the 9th section had not been altered by the Lords.

Finally, in answer to the question why the Government brought in the Bill now, after making no mention of it in the Queen's Speech, instead of waiting till another session, Mr. Forster answered that they found they could wait no longer. "Facts are accumulating upon us. Evictions have increased and are increasing." For the five years ending in 1877 the average for each year was 503; in 1878 the number of evictions was 743; in 1879 it was 1,098; and up to the 20th of June this year it had been 1,073. These evictions had to be supported by force; there was a strong feeling of injustice throughout the country; and if no change were made in the law the Government would have a grave responsibility in maintaining order.

Short as the Bill was, consisting only of thirty-five lines, the discussion of it occupied a very considerable portion of the session. Three sittings were spent upon it before it passed the second reading; eight sittings before it was got through Committee; a sitting was given to its consideration upon Report; and it was warmly debated once more when it was proposed for third reading. And while the "microscopic force of Parliamentary vision" was thus brought to bear upon every word of the Bill, upon every argument used in its support, and upon every turn in the conduct of the Government with regard to it, the discussion was no less keen and vehement out of doors. From the moment that notice was given of the Bill, the *Times* and other newspapers were flooded with letters for and against, but for the most part against. A considerable proportion of the letters was from Irish landlords and their friends, reciting cases of individual hardship, that landowners would suffer if deprived of the only effectual means that they had for enforcing the payment of their rents. The hardship, it was contended, would fall chiefly on good and lenient landlords, who had allowed their tenants to get in arrear; while harsh landlords, who had been less forbearing, had cleared out the impecunious and were now provided with paying tenants.

The opposition to the second reading of the Bill was led by Mr. Chaplin, who, repeating what he had urged against it when proposed as a clause, denounced it roundly as a departure from every principle of legislation which has hitherto been sanctioned and admitted in civilised society in the country and in the age in which we live. He denied that the principle of the Bill was contained in section 9 of the Land Act. That applied only to tenancies in the past. But Mr. Chaplin further argued that if it was an extension of the Land Act, it was an extension of its worst and most vicious feature, and he quoted from Mr. Disraeli a prophecy that the Land Act would create a new Irish grievance—the payment of rent. He denounced the whole theory of compensation for disturbance. "It seems to me absolutely monstrous to make a land-

lord compensate a tenant for the loss or rather the non-continuance of a privilege which, in the first instance, emanated from himself. You might as well—or perhaps even with more justice—compensate a man for the refusal of a farm in the first instance.” He quoted from a correspondent the pungent remark that “the main result of the Bill, if passed into an Act, will be to foster the notion so sedulously promulgated by agitators in Ireland, that every man who, by any undertaking or promise, has induced another to put him into possession of lands becomes thereupon endowed with a right to retain that possession, though he may violate the promises by which it was procured.”

In answer to Mr. Chaplin’s attack on the principle of compensation for disturbance, Mr. Charles Russell illustrated the tenant’s interest recognised by the Land Act by a reference to the history of the law of copyhold in England. The copyholders, he argued, were originally tenants-at-will, but the moral claim they obtained in virtue of their occupancy came to be recognised, till now copyhold right was little inferior to fee simple right. Mr. Russell followed Mr. Forster in arguing that there was very little difference between section 9 of the Land Act, and the Government proposal. “The former Act provided that the tenant might get compensation if the Court held that he was ejected for non-payment of a rent that was exorbitant; the present Bill allowed compensation if the Court found that he was unable to pay the rent in consequence of the prevailing distress, and that he was willing to remain on just terms, but that these terms were unreasonably refused. The difference between exorbitant rent and unreasonable terms was not such as to justify the extravagant language which has been used of the Bill.”

Mr. Plunket delivered a dashing attack on the Bill, much more closely reasoned than Mr. Chaplin’s. It was not a relief Bill, he said, but a political proposal; a proposal for the direct confiscation of the income of one class in favour of another. The Government rested it on the increasing number of evictions. Why had evictions increased? On account of the anti-rent agitation, tenants were incited not to pay their rents, and the landlords were forced to threaten eviction in order to compel them to pay their rents. He quite admitted that the Land Act had given tenants an interest in their holdings. But as a set-off against this boon, and as a compensation to landlords for this concession at their expense, it had established two principles. One was that the Act should apply only to existing tenancies, and that with regard to all future tenancies contract should be free; the other was, that the tenant should scrupulously fulfil his duty to the landlord by paying his rent. Non-payment of rent disentitled the tenant to any compensation. But the present Bill proposed to abrogate both these cardinal principles of the Land Act. Then Mr. Plunket asked the Government why they proposed to apply their Bill only to certain districts. What justice was there in

refusing the right to men outside a certain circle while they gave it to men inside?

The first four speakers in the debate practically exhausted all that was to be said for and against the Bill. But still the debate went on. That the Bill encouraged a dangerous agitation; that it would make the peasantry think the payment of rent in any form an injustice; that it would deprive the landlord of his only means of enforcing the payment of rent, obliging him to choose between foregoing what was due to him or paying seven years rent in order to get one; that if distress had to be relieved, it should not be relieved at the expense of one class—these were the arguments against the Bill, repeated again and again with angry emphasis. Four of the most effective attacks upon the Bill were delivered by Mr. Tottenham, an Irish landlord, Lord Randolph Churchill, Mr. W. H. Smith, and Mr. Gibson, the Attorney-General for Ireland in Lord Beaconsfield's administration. Mr. Tottenham defended the much-abused class to which he had the misfortune to belong, and protested against their being looked upon as "incapable of sympathy with distress and suffering, mere machines for squeezing the last possible shilling out of the tenantry." He protested also against a Bill which "would enable tenants to emigrate with the plunder of the landlords in their pockets." Lord R. Churchill described the Bill as "the commencement of a campaign against the landlords; the first step in a social war; an attempt to raise the masses against the propertied classes." He was not one of those, he said, who disapproved of the Land Act. It had raised the value of landed property in Ireland. But since this Bill was brought forward, landed property had been in the market, and it was impossible to find a purchaser for it. "Capital acted instinctively and almost unerringly, it refused investment in Irish land." And why? Because this Bill would destroy "the cardinal and leading feature of the Land Act, the inviolability of the rent which the landlord demanded and the tenant agreed to pay." Mr. W. H. Smith was more measured in language and less rhetorical in manner than Lord R. Churchill and Mr. Gibson, but he also urged that this was a new proposal with regard to property, and that the principle of it, if allowed in this case, would have in justice to be extended. Were the Government prepared to extend it to cases of distress from bad trade? Ought tradesmen, living in a shop believed to be necessary to their existence, to be driven forth without compensation when they could not in hard times pay their rent?

Mr. Roundell, the Attorney-General for Ireland, Mr. Law, Mr. Gladstone, and Lord Hartington were the chief defenders of the Bill. Mr. Roundell, as an English member closely allied with the landowning interest, sought to remove misapprehensions as to its character, by showing that it was not a novel proposal, and that it was not an invasion of the rights of property. Mr. Gladstone described it as being in reality a Bill "to maintain the principles of

property." "We say that in the face of those afflicting circumstances which partially prevail in Ireland with an extreme severity, it is a Bill to enable the State with a safe conscience to use the strength at its command in order to maintain the rights of property and to enforce the provisions of the land." He enlarged upon the fact that it was an exceptional measure. Those who spoke of its tendency in exaggerated terms were the men who really encouraged the Irish peasantry to believe that it sanctioned the non-payment of rent. The Government had been at the utmost pains to guard the measure, demanded by strong necessity, and carefully adapted and limited to that necessity, from establishing a dangerous precedent. They had been most careful to so frame it that it should not deprive the landlord of the power of enforcing payment of the rent due to him. What the Bill really restricted, and that temporarily, was the landlord's power of eviction, a power conferred upon the landlord by the law in Ireland by recent Acts—conferred upon him, Mr. Gladstone went so far as to say, "behind the back of the Irish occupier, almost in fraud of the Irish occupier." Apart from this temporary check upon the landlord's power of eviction, the Bill left intact and entire every remedy which the landlord possessed for the recovery of his rent.

Most of the speakers in support of the Bill touched upon the difference between the occupancy of land in Ireland and in England, the Irish peasant's strong attachment to the soil, and the various reasons—founded in custom and in the occupier's relations with the landlord—why there was a feeling in Ireland more than in England that the farmer had a right to his land, irrespective of the landlord's will and pleasure. It was pointed out again and again that this feeling existed before it was recognised by the Land Act.

Perhaps the most direct and powerful defence of the Government measure was that made by Lord Hartington. He grappled directly with the main objections of its opponents. "I assert," he said, "that so far from being any contravention of the principles of the Land Act, this measure has been framed simply with the view of preventing the objects of that Act from being defeated"—defeated by exceptional circumstances which could not possibly have been foreseen. "In some parts of Ireland the impoverished circumstances of the tenant have placed in the hands of the landlord a weapon which the Government never contemplated, and which has enabled the landlord, at a sacrifice of a half or a quarter of a year's rent, to clear his estate of hundreds of tenants, whom in ordinary circumstances he would not have been able to remove, except upon payment of a heavy pecuniary fine. I ask whether that is not a weapon calculated to enable landlords absolutely to defeat the main purposes of the Act? Supposing a landlord wished to clear his estate of a number of small tenants, he knows that this is the time to do it; and if he should lose this opportunity, he can never have it again without a great pecuniary sacrifice." In answer to the argument

that the passing of the Bill would lead to a general refusal to pay rent, and deprive the landlord of all means of enforcing payment, Lord Hartington pointed out that the landlord was left in possession of every power which he ever possessed, including the power of eviction which was given him by the Acts of 1851 and 1860. The Bill only provided that if the landlord used his power of eviction, the tenant might bring him into Court. Under the Bill, the tenant had to make good his claim; and if the landlord could show that he had been actuated by one particle of moderation or forbearance towards the tenant—such as every good landlord exercises—then the case of the tenant fails. “That there would be a general refusal to pay rent in these circumstances—that a tenantry especially attached to the land would run the risk of eviction on the chance of being able to make good a bad claim,” Lord Hartington considered “a monstrous supposition.”

The second reading of the Bill was carried after three nights’ debate, by 295 to 217. About fifty Liberals abstained from voting, and twenty voted against the Bill. When the Order for Committee was read on July 8, Mr. Pell interposed with an amendment that the Bill should be confined to estates on which evictions had taken place since November 1, 1879. Comparatively little, however, was said about this proposal in the long debate that followed. It was again the main principle of the Bill that was attacked and defended, Mr. Albert Grey leading the attack in a long and rigidly argumentative attempt to demonstrate that the Bill was at variance with the principles of the Land Act and, in striking at freedom of contract, shook the very foundations of society. A striking incident in this night’s debate was Mr. Parnell’s declaration of war against the Bill, on the ground of an amendment of which the Attorney-General for Ireland had given notice on behalf of the Government. The purpose of this amendment was to provide that the tenant should have no claim to compensation when the landlord, before evicting him, had given him permission to sell his interest in the holding. The Government held that this amendment introduced nothing new into the Bill; that it was merely declaratory of what was before contained in it. Indeed, Mr. Gladstone, in his speech on the second reading, had said that if the tenant had been offered the privilege of selling his interest, no judge in his senses would hold that this was not a reasonable offer. The excuse made by the Government for proposing this amendment was that as a doubt had been raised whether this would be a reasonable offer on the part of the landlord, it was advisable that it should be clearly declared by the law to be a reasonable offer. But Mr. Parnell would have none of this amendment. He had voted for the second reading though indifferently satisfied with the Bill, but any such change in its wording as this would make it absolutely worthless, and after taunting Mr. Forster with his instability, he announced for himself and his followers that they would offer it all the opposition in

their power. Several other Irish members spoke in the same strain. The question that the House go into Committee over the Bill, was carried by 255 to 199, the diminished majority as compared with the vote on the second reading being accounted for by the abstention of the Home Rulers.

Next day (the 9th) there was another discussion on the question that the preamble be postponed. Mr. Parnell reiterated his objections to the permission to sell clause, declaring that in the present state of Ireland it would be impossible for a tenant to find a purchaser; and Lord George Hamilton raised the subtle point whether a purchaser of a tenant's interest would be entitled to resell. If he were not, how could he be expected to buy; and if he were, this was introducing something like the Ulster custom for a permanence, and ought not to be done by a Bill which professed to have only a temporary purpose. Lord G. Hamilton advised the Government to drop the Bill, an advice given about the same time by the *Times*. How could the Government hope to carry through the measure without the assistance of the Home Rulers? A still weightier attack upon Mr. Law's amendment was made by Mr. Charles Russell. As the amendment stood, he urged, granting permission to sell would alone put the landlord in the position before the law of being a reasonable man, whatever might be the character of the rent of the holding, even if it were exorbitant. Who would buy the tenant's interest in a rack-rented farm? in such a farm the tenant's interest was worth practically nothing, and it was mockery and not reason to give him permission to sell it. Mr. Russell's speech settled the fate of the amendment as it stood; Mr. Gladstone at once rose, disclaimed any purpose of enabling landlords, under cover of the clause, to make illusory offers, and promised reconsideration of its terms. On the 12th Mr. Gladstone announced the withdrawal of the amendment, proposing in place of it, to amend the original clause by substituting for "terms unreasonably refused" by the landlord, "terms refused without the offer of any reasonable alternative."

When Committee on the Bill was resumed on the 13th, Lord R. Churchill moved to report progress, on the ground that the new amendment would alter the whole character of the Bill, and that the Committee had not had sufficient time to think it over. What was the meaning of this change of front? Mr. Gorst and Mr. Chaplin also complained of the extraordinary change of attitude, the former saying that the Bill changed like a kaleidoscope. Mr. Forster denied that there was any change of front; the Government, finding that the words of their Bill were open to misconstruction, were only anxious to remove the possibility of it by making their meaning quite clear.

The motion to report progress was withdrawn, but then a much more serious attack—the most damaging attack, in fact, that it had to encounter, was opened by Lord George Hamilton. He challenged the accuracy of the returns of evictions which had

furnished the Government with their chief reason for bringing in the Bill. Mr. Gladstone had spoken of 15,000 people being rendered houseless and homeless; Lord George Hamilton accused him of confounding processes of ejectment with actual evictions. He quoted a number of figures, from magistrates and land agents, to show that the number of ejectment processes was much larger than the number of *bonâ fide* evictions. In the county Donegal the number of processes for the first six months of the year was 156; the number of actual evictions only eighteen. In Tyrone, one agent had taken out forty ejectments, but not a single eviction had been made.

Lord G. Hamilton's figures made an immense impression. The opponents of the Bill were jubilant, and redoubled their efforts, Mr. Gibson surpassing himself in his onslaughts upon the Government. Mr. Plunket urged that they were wrong also in their statement of the number of constabulary employed; that they had arrived at the number by counting all the men employed in each eviction, overlooking the fact that the same men had been employed in different evictions. In reply, Mr. Gladstone, suspending judgment and promising inquiry as to the accuracy of Lord G. Hamilton's criticisms of the Government returns, argued that if tenants were legally ejected and afterwards admitted to their farms as care-takers, the effect upon the general condition of the country was very much the same as if they had been actually evicted and expelled. They were deprived of their status as tenants; they were deprived of the interest in their holding which the Land Act had been intended to secure for them. With regard to the number of constabulary employed, the Government looked, he said, not so much to the total number of men as to the number required to enforce any single process. "We have arrived at a state of things where fifty, where 100, where 200 people are required to enable a legal act to be done, which legal act ought to require no support whatever." A powerful speech in support of the Government was also made by a new member, Mr. H. Fowler, who protested against delaying the progress of the Bill by "a trumpery contest about statistics, which did not affect the matter one way or the other, and held that the Bill was "based on the broad and general principle that landlords ought not to take advantage of exceptional circumstances of distress to interfere with property that legitimately belonged to the tenants under the Land Act of 1870."

The next crisis in the progress of the Bill originated in a proposal emanating from the Opposition that the measure should be limited in its application to tenancies not exceeding 15*l.* a-year. The Government accepted the principle of a limitation, on the ground that it was chiefly in the case of smaller tenancies that hardship was likely to occur, but proposed a higher limit, 30*l.* a-year. This brought them again into collision with Mr. Parnell, who maintained that the effect of the limitation would be to leave

a large amount of property, protected by the Land Act of 1870, at the mercy of rack-renting landlords. Mr. Walter, on the other hand, supported the 15*l.* limit because it was the figure of limitation in section 9 of the Land Act, upon which the Bill was founded. After a long discussion, in the course of which Mr. Parnell moved to report progress, the 15*l.* limit was rejected by 231 to 154. The discussion was then resumed on the 30*l.* limit, and prolonged into the next sitting, till Mr. Gladstone suggested that the exact figure of limitation should be fixed when the Bill was brought up on report. Mr. Forster then withdrew his amendment. The figure ultimately decided on was a 30*l.* valuation, equivalent to 42*l.* or 43*l.* rent.

Before the stage of Report was reached, a host of amendments, some limiting, some extending the Government scheme, had to be discussed and rejected, and a long debate was also held before Mr. Gladstone's amendment of "terms refused without the offer of any reasonable alternative," for "terms unreasonably refused," was carried. The third reading was carried on July 26, by 303 to 237, the debate at this, the thirteenth sitting on the measure, being as hot as any that preceded it. Mr. Parnell and his immediate following abstained from voting, and sixteen Liberal members voted against the Government.

All the labour that the House of Commons had bestowed upon the Compensation for Disturbance Bill went for nothing. The House of Lords rejected it on the 3rd of August, after two nights' debate, by the overwhelming majority of 282 to 51. Lord Granville introduced the measure in a conciliatory speech, representing it as a temporary measure introduced to assist the Government in the maintenance of the law, and Lord Derby, after a masterly exhibition of the defects and dangers of the measure, made an appeal to the Lords to let it pass the second reading, and modify it in Committee. But the House of Lords would not have the principle of the measure in any shape. In his three objections to the Bill Lord Beaconsfield summed up the general feeling of the House. "The Bill," he said, "contained three proposals, and he objected to all three of them. His first objection was that it imposed a burden upon a specific class. His second that it brought insecurity into all kinds of transactions. His third that it delegated to a public officer the extraordinary power of fixing the rents of the country."

The session had very nearly reached its ordinary limits when the Disturbance Bill was disposed of, and the Government had made very little progress with the measures mentioned in the Queen's Speech, and those subsequently introduced. For a month before the questions had been asked, "Which of these measures would they sacrifice?" and "Would they be able to carry any of them without prolonging the session into September?" The supporters of the Ministry in the press strongly condemned the dilatory and obstructive tactics of the Opposition, especially of the

"Fourth Party," composed of Conservatives who were restless under the staid leadership of Sir S. Northcote—and urged that Parliament should be "kept in" till it had done its work. The Government were reminded that this would be a much milder punishment to their majority than to the sporting members of the Opposition. The journalistic opponents of the Government, on the other hand, poured ridicule and indignation on the idea, treated it as a pedantic impossibility, and asked whether it was in accordance with the dignity of Parliament that its members should be lectured as if they were a pack of refractory schoolboys. Gradually, however, it became apparent that "keeping in" Parliament till their measures were disposed of was neither more nor less than the Government contemplated. The Government made extraordinary efforts to get their business through at the usual time. Mr. Gladstone was constant in his attendance, and exerted his powers to the utmost to remove obstacles in debate. On the 12th of July, he proposed to appropriate Wednesdays from the 14th and Tuesdays from the 20th to Government business. He announced at the same time that they did not mean to persevere with the Irish Borough Franchise Bill or with the Ballot Bill, merely taking a temporary continuing Act for the existing ballot law. But at that time there were five other measures to be read a second time—the Hares and Rabbits Bill, the Savings Bank Bill, the Vaccination Bill, the Burials Bill, and the Post Office Money Order Bill; besides five Bills in Committee—the Relief of Distress Bill, the Compensation for Disturbance Bill, the Customs and Inland Revenue Bill, the Employers' Liability Bill, and the Merchant Seamen's Bill. What was to be done with them? Could they possibly be passed through all their stages before September? Mr. Gladstone replied, cautiously, that the name of September was hateful in his ears, but that there was nothing in the Government Bills to necessitate sitting into September if reasonable despatch were used. He would not say that the Government intended to withdraw any of them, and in point of fact they withdrew none of them except the Vaccination Bill.

For this, doubtless, they had good reasons. Short as the session was, there would have been a feeling of disappointment if a Parliament from which domestic legislation was expected, had had nothing to show. There had even been some disappointment at the meagreness of the programme at the beginning of the session. There had been symptoms of discontent among the Radical members of the ministerial majority. Doubts were felt about the foreign policy of the Government. There had been more than doubt, there had been loudly expressed indignation, at their action in not recalling Sir Bartle Frere. The dissatisfaction on this score, which had been prevented only by Mr. Gladstone's influence from breaking into open revolt, was considerably appeased when the Confederation scheme fell through, and it was seen that if Sir Bartle had been recalled the moment the new Government took

office, the blame of his failure would have been laid upon them. The boasts of the *Edinburgh Review* over the Whig composition of the Ministry were also calculated to irritate. The strong opposition to the Disturbance Bill and other Bills that had been discussed gave rise to the remark that the Government were in the awkward position of having to try to carry democratic measures with a plutocratic machine, and that another dissolution might soon be necessary. This was stigmatised as Radical insolence, but all the same it was obvious that unless the Government were prepared to run the risk of alienating their Radical supporters—perhaps the majority of their majority—it would be necessary for them to do something substantial in their first session as an instalment of domestic legislation.

Apart from the Disturbance Bill, the only Government measure that partook of the nature of a surprise was Mr. Gladstone's abolition of the Malt Tax, the substitution for it of a duty on beer, and the imposition of an additional penny in the Income Tax to enable this fiscal change to be effected. A new Budget was almost necessary, for two reasons. Sir S. Northcote had calculated on a narrow surplus; falling-off in the revenue and increase in the expenditure threatened to absorb the whole and more than the whole of this surplus. Besides, the Commercial Treaty with France, if renewed at all, had to be renewed within the existing financial year, and this involved a reconsideration of the Wine Duties. Instead of attempting to patch up the previous estimates, Mr. Gladstone resolved to re-cast some important parts of the financial system, and in this re-construction to keep especially in mind the depressed condition of the agricultural interest, and their claims to relief.

His proposals were communicated to the House on June 10, in a speech which occupied nearly two hours in delivery, and went into elaborate detail with regard to the Wine Duties, and the advantages and disadvantages of the various modes of levying an assessment on fermented drinks. He began by dealing with the Wine Duties, and alluding to the success of his various efforts to promote the substitution of a cheap and sound wine for the abominable compounds at one time sold in this country, he proposed that there should be a new scale of duties, as follows:—A uniform sixpenny rate per gallon on wine up to an alcoholic strength of 20 degrees; between 20 and 35 an extra penny for each additional degree; above 35, when wine almost ceased to be wine, a rate rising by 2½d. for each degree. Coming then to beer, which he described as the staple drink of England, he did not think it would be fair to relieve it entirely from taxation, while whisky, the staple drink of Scotland, remained uncheapened. But the duty on beer was at present levied through the Malt Tax, and he argued at length that this was not the best way of levying it. The opinion of economists was strong against taxes levied on the raw material. The excise on malt pressed hardly upon the producer,

and hampered his business. Still, this long-standing grievance to the farmer could not be removed without some substitute being found for the Malt Tax, and when it had been proposed before to substitute for it a tax on beer, the manufactured article, the objection in the difficulty of collecting the tax, from the multiplicity of brewing establishments, had been felt to be insuperable. Now, however, the brewing trade had gradually centred into fewer hands, and this difficulty had ceased therefore to be a difficulty. He proposed to charge a duty of 6s. 3d. upon every barrel of beer, the beer being gauged for the purpose of assessment when it was in the fermenting squares. There was, however, to be an allowance for waste, which would reduce the duty, with almost precise exactitude, to 6s. As for private brewing, it was to be kept under the eye of the law by means of a licence. Every person in a house under 20l. who desired to brew for domestic use was to take out a licence for a few shillings. Mr. Gladstone held that his proposals would be advantageous in liberating capital, would be a great act of justice to makers of vinegar and yeast, and would also in the end be found profitable to the revenue. On the ground of all its advantages, immediate and prospective, he thought he was justified in asking for an additional penny of Income Tax to enable him to make the change. He further proposed various changes in the licensing rates, altering the scale so as to raise the licences on the whole, and at the same time secure a better proportion between the charges laid on different kinds of licences.

There was no hostile criticism of Mr. Gladstone's financial proposals. Mr. Chaplin and Mr. Newdegate joined with Mr. J. W. Barclay and Mr. James Howard in expressing their satisfaction at the abolition of the Malt Tax. The Customs and Inland Revenue Bill, embodying the proposals, met with some but not a great deal of opposition, the chief incident in its history being the defeat experienced by Sir Stafford Northcote in trying a fall with his financial master over the addition to the Income Tax. The Bill was read a second time on June 24. Mr. Gladstone had proposed that the Crown should have a discretionary power by an Order in Council up to August 15, to introduce the new scale in the wine duties, contingent upon obtaining certain reductions from other countries. He now announced that they could not hope to conclude their negotiations with the French Government by the 15th, and if they found this impossible, that he would not ask the House to enact the new scales at present. Otherwise, his confidence in his financial scheme had not diminished, and he expected that it would yield a surplus of 400,000l. or 500,000l. to meet any demands of the current year. The Bill was read a second time without a division. Mr. Anderson protested against the income-tax-payers of Scotland, whose national beverage was more heavily taxed than beer, having to contribute to the cheapening of beer, already exempted from four-fifths of the proper tax upon its alcohol. Mr. Cartwright doubted whether taxing by degrees

above 20 would not lead to disputes between merchants and Custom-house authorities, and be vexatious to the trade. Mr. Bass spoke in favour of a larger allowance for waste. But Sir Stafford Northcote reserved the weight of his criticism for another occasion.

On going into Committee on July 6, Mr. Gladstone announced that the Wine Duties Clauses would be dropped, that the allowances for waste would be increased from 4 per cent. to 6 per cent., and that there would be other slight alterations. The various clauses of the Bill were subjected to minute criticism on the 21st, 22nd, and the 23rd. When the Bill came up for consideration on the 28th, Lord George Hamilton moved an amendment, to the effect that the Malt Tax should not be abolished at the expense of the payers of Income Tax, and was supported by Sir Stafford Northcote. Their contention was that the country was not in a condition to bear additional taxation. The amendment was opposed by Lord Randolph Churchill. "Notwithstanding," he humorously said, "his willingness to co-operate in any motion brought forward to embarrass the Government, he could not support this, because he did not see how the Malt Tax could be abolished without some substitute being provided." Only 94 voted in support of the amendment, a result commented on as showing the confidence on both sides in Mr. Gladstone's finance.

Another measure, designed for the satisfaction of the farmers, was proposed for second reading on the same night with the introduction of Mr. Gladstone's new Budget—the Hares and Rabbits Bill, which eventually entered the statute book under the title of the Ground Game Act. The preamble set forth that it was "expedient in the interests of good husbandry, and for the better security for the capital and labour invested by the occupiers of land in the cultivation of the soil, that further provision should be made to enable such occupiers to protect their crops from injury and loss by ground game," and this was the text which Sir W. Harcourt set himself to enforce in a telling speech, in which the hardship to good husbandry from hares and rabbits was incontrovertibly demonstrated, from the report of the Committee of 1873. "The Bill," he said, "did not pretend to reform the Game Laws, but only to give the tenant protection." The Government had considered a suggestion that protection should be given by leaving hares and rabbits out of the category of game, but they had come to the conclusion that their end could better be attained by the main provision of the Bill, which was simply that the occupier of the land should have, as incident to and inseparable from his occupation of land, the right to kill and take ground game concurrently with the landlord or any other person authorised by the landlord. All agreements to the contrary were to be null and void; the occupier could not legally contract himself out of this right. Sir W. Harcourt justified this interference with freedom of contract by reference to various Acts in which that prin-

ciple had been abrogated on grounds of public policy. Current leases, however, were to be exempted from the operation of the Act.

After Sir W. Harcourt had explained and justified the Government proposal, the debate on the second reading was adjourned, and it was not resumed till July 29. But though the subject was thus intermitted in Parliament, through pressure of other business, the interest in it was kept alive by a constant succession of letters in the newspapers. The defiant tendency of Sir W. Harcourt's defence of the Bill roused a host of objectors. Country gentlemen wrote to prophesy the most direful results from such a measure if it became law. Hares and rabbits, they urged, would infallibly be exterminated. The people would thereby lose an enormous amount of valuable food, and the working man would be deprived of his favourite Sunday dinner. And this was by no means the only or the worst evil anticipated. One nobleman undertook to show by a chain of necessary consequences that the Bill would eventuate in the extermination of the farmer himself. First hares and rabbits would be exterminated; then foxes would have nothing to eat but pheasants and poultry, then fox-hunting would cease, then landowners would go abroad in search of amusement. The result would be the moral and physical deterioration of the landlord class; and as for the farmer, his industry would be ruined, for where would he find a market for his horses, his oats, his hay, and his straw? Less extravagant objectors were content to bewail the extinction of a manly sport, and to denounce the radical and revolutionary tendencies of the Government in interfering with freedom of contract and trespassing on the rights of property. On the other hand, there were objectors who held that the tenant's inalienable right would be no protection to him, that he would be kept from exercising it by fear of eviction, and that the nominal protection accorded him would enable the landlord, with a show of justice, to preserve hares and rabbits in greater swarms than ever.

Everything had been said that could be said for and against the Bill before the discussion of it was resumed by Parliament. If the Bill did not satisfy advanced game law reformers, it conceded everything, or nearly everything, that was wanted by the farmers. Mr. P. A. Taylor contended that the admission of farmers to the number of possible game-preservers did not remove any part of the grievance against which he had so long protested as the fruit of the game laws. He objected to those laws because they represented a system of class privilege, because they divorced the people from the soil, were oppressive to a large proportion of the rural population, and tended to continued disturbance and demoralisation, to breaches of the peace, to local hatreds and feuds, to riots, in some cases to mortal conflicts. Mr. Bright also said that the Bill did not meet his views on the great game law question. But the farmers as a whole were very well satisfied, as was shown by the conversation at their market ordinaries and the resolutions passed by chambers of agriculture.

The adjourned debate on the second reading, resumed on July 29th, and continued at next sitting, did not produce any fresh arguments. The tenant-farmer representatives on both sides of the House, Mr. Pell, Mr. James Howard, Mr. Duckham, spoke in favour of the Bill; and from both sides of the House came speeches against it. Mr. Brand, who moved the rejection of the Bill as a violation of freedom of contract, admitted that if it could be shown to be required in the public interests he would cease to oppose. For himself he believed that the farmers were able to protect themselves, and if any changes were needed it should be in the direction of removing hares and rabbits from the game list. Lord Elcho made the most elaborate and uncompromising attack on the Bill, and Sir W. Harcourt's reply was mainly devoted to chaffing him. The debate was chiefly remarkable for two circumstances, that the consent of the Government to the adjournment of the debate on the first night was only obtained after a prolonged and violent scene, and that the Bill was read a second time next night without a division.

The first of these circumstances was a better index to the temper of the Opposition than the second. Their resistance was only deferred till Committee. A host of small amendments were put on the notice-paper, and these were pressed with such pertinacity, and made the occasion for so many general disquisitions on the Bill, advices to withdraw it, general criticisms of the conduct of the Home Secretary, and so forth, that the word obstruction was often heard in connection with the conduct of the Opposition. With a view to conciliating the Opposition, as he openly said, and facilitating the passage of the measure, Sir W. Harcourt proposed certain limitations upon the occupier's right of killing ground game, restricting the number of persons whom he might authorise to kill with firearms, and subjecting these persons to the liability to produce their written authority on demand by the landowner or game tenant. The Radical members of the majority acquiesced somewhat reluctantly in these limitations, and were complimented by the *Pall Mall Gazette* on their meekness. Let no one pretend henceforward, it was said, that the Radicals are masters of the situation, and that the Government is driven before them.

The Ground Game Bill (the title ultimately adopted) did not come before the House of Lords till August 30th, and Lord Redesdale moved its rejection on the ground that no adequate time was afforded for deliberating on it. Lord Beaconsfield advocated its second reading, and much attention was attracted by his earnest advice to the Lords to avoid collision with the Commons except upon matters of high principle and deep importance. Two subjects, he said, occupied the thoughts of the country, the government of Ireland, and the principles upon which the landed property of the country should continue to be established. On these matters the Lords should stand firm in defence of their convictions, but it would be a mistake to take up a feeble position on the eve of a

great constitutional struggle. Lord Beaconsfield's advice was followed, and the Lords contented themselves with slightly amending the Ground Game Bill.

Another Government Bill which aroused a great deal of strenuous opposition, on the ground that it interfered with freedom of contract and the rights of property, was the Employers' Liability Bill. The subject had often been before the late Parliament; one of the most common accusations against the late Government had been that they had neglected their promises to deal with it; and the solution of the difficulty proposed by the present Government was identical in principle with the solution proposed by Mr. Brassey in a Bill introduced in 1879. It was a compromise, as Mr. Dodson explained, on the second reading of the Bill on June 3. The existing law as regarded the liability of employers for injuries sustained by workmen in their service was judge-made law. It started from a decision given in 1837, which involved the principle of common employment as a bar against any claim for compensation for injuries. In judicial decisions the principle had been established that an employer was liable for any injury done to third parties by the negligence of his servants; but by one decision after another a principle of exception had also been clearly established that when the injured person was in the same employment with the person whose negligence caused the injury, he and his legal representatives should have no claim for damages whatever. If there was an explosion which killed or wounded other persons or damaged property, the injured persons or their representatives and the owners of the damaged property were entitled to compensation; but injured fellow-workmen had no legal claim, because they were in the same employment. This was the doctrine of common employment. For years workmen had been complaining that it was unjust, and had been demanding to be put on a footing of equality with the casual recipient of injury. Now, in legislating in view of this charge of injustice, the Government had to choose between two extreme remedies, one favoured by employers and the other by workmen. One was to free the employer from all liability for injuries done, except by himself personally; the other to abolish the doctrine of common employment, and make him liable to all injured persons alike. The Government Bill proposed to steer a middle course, approximating to but not entirely accepting the views of the workmen. They proposed to extend the employers' liability, but not so far as the workmen wished, making the employer liable for injuries sustained by his workmen in certain cases, namely, when the injury was caused by defect in the machinery, by the negligence of any person to whom the employer had delegated superintendence or to whose orders the workmen were bound to conform, or, lastly, by any act or omission done or made in obedience to the employer's rules or bye-laws.

This was the principle of the Government compromise, embodied in a short Bill. The second reading was opposed by Mr. Knowles,

who advocated instead the appointment of a Select Committee to consider whether the workmen's grievance could not be met by a system of insurance. Several speeches were made against the Bill; some arguing that it went too far and would make the employers' liability too heavy to be borne; others, on the part of the workmen, contending that it did not go far enough, and that no amendment of the law would be satisfactory which did not abolish the doctrine of common employment. But no division was taken upon the second reading. The Bill was committed *pro forma* on June 4th, in order that amendments of detail might be introduced. No time was found for its consideration in Committee till July 6th. When it reappeared, it was entirely rewritten, though the principles of the compromise remained unaltered. Meantime, also, as in the case of the Hares and Rabbits Bill, the subject had been most thoroughly discussed outside Parliament, the two extreme views to which we have referred finding able advocates, and many able advocates also appearing in support of the view that the law of liability should be left as it was, and that a system of insurance should be devised, under which employers should largely contribute to a fund designed to afford compensation for injuries to workmen. The opposition from the side of the workmen was not pressed in Committee. Mr. Macdonald had given notice of an amendment on going into Committee, to the effect that the doctrine of common employment should be abolished, but he withdrew it. But the opposition from the side of the employers, who were asked to make the concession, was naturally urged with greater warmth. The general principle of the Bill was again put on its defence by Mr. Knowles, who renewed his motion for a Select Committee. The defence was undertaken by Mr. Chamberlain, who made ample admission of the difficulty and delicacy of the subject, and the magnitude of the interests involved, and Mr. Knowles's motion was rejected by 259 to 130. The Bill was thereafter laid aside till the Compensation for Disturbance Bill was got out of the way, but the discussion was resumed with additional vigour in August. Mr. Gladstone had promised that if any well-considered scheme of insurance were submitted to the Government in Committee, with a view to being embodied in the Bill, it should have their best attention. But in the end the Bill was passed, after protracted debate, without any such addition. The House of Lords struck out a sub-section, but it was restored by the Commons, and finally agreed to.

The discussion on the Burials Bill was for the most part confined to the Lords—where it was introduced early in the Session, on May 27—and to the press. Like the other important measures of the session, it was a compromise, and as such was attacked on both sides. Its central provision was that a burial in churchyard or graveyard might take place “at the option of the person having the charge of or being responsible for the same, either without any religious service or with such Christian and orderly service at the

grave as such person shall think fit ; and any person or persons who shall be thereunto invited, or be authorised by the person having the charge of or being responsible for such burial, may conduct such service or take part in any religious act thereat." At the same time also the Bill proposed a measure of relief to the clergy, relieving them from the obligation to read the Burial Service over any sectary for whom it might be demanded. The exclusion of services that were not Christian was attacked as maintaining unnecessarily a shred of intolerance. A protest against it came from an unexpected quarter ; The Liberation Society prepared a memorial demanding the removal of this limitation from the Bill. In the debate on the second reading of the Bill, Lord Derby also objected to the word Christian, on the ground that it was not capable of definition for legal purposes, and might lead to litigation on a subject which it would be disagreeable to have argued in a court of law. The opposition to the measure on the part of those who objected to the admission of Dissenters to churchyards was led by the Bishop of Lincoln and Lord Cranbrook, and followed familiar lines. Dissenters would not be satisfied with admission to the churchyards ; they would next demand admission to the churches, Bishop Wordsworth said. "Does any one of your Lordships imagine," Lord Cranbrook asked, "that by this Bill you are about to terminate a controversy ?" The second reading of the Bill was carried by 126 to 101. It was passed through Committee on the 15th, with the addition of an amendment to the effect that the concession to Dissenters should not apply where there was an unconsecrated burial-ground in the parish. The Lord Chancellor also attempted to define Christian service as including "every religious service used by any church, denomination, or person professing to be Christian."

It was late in the session before the Burials Bill came before the House of Commons—the second reading was taken on August 12—and it was generally supposed that the Government would drop it, more particularly seeing that a large section of their supporters objected to the maintenance of any restriction upon burial ceremonies. It was not expected that the Commons would agree willingly to this restriction, much less to the limitation upon the principle of the Bill introduced by the Lords. But late in August, on the 28th, the Bill, under the charge of Mr. Osborne Morgan, was proposed for Committee, and carried through that stage at a single sitting, after an animated debate. The Lords' limitation that the Bill should not apply where there was an unconsecrated burial-ground in the parish was struck out by a majority of 157 to 72. The limitation to Christian services was the subject of a warm discussion, and though it was defended by Mr. Bright—on the ground that some concession should be made to the feelings of hostility to the measure honestly felt by so many clergymen of the Established Church—it was carried only by a majority of 3.

The Customs and Inland Revenue Act, the Ground Game Act, the Employers' Liability Act, and the Burials Act, were the chief achievements of the Government in domestic legislation, and along with the Bradlaugh difficulty and various phases of the Irish difficulty, the measures against which the main efforts of the Opposition were directed. But there were less prominently contested Bills passed of considerable scope and importance. One of the most prominent of these was a material supplement to the Elementary Education Acts, explained to the House of Lords by Lord Spencer, and read a second time without opposition on July 5. Introducing no new principle, this Bill caused little opposition and consequently attracted little attention, although it affected the education and employment of some six millions of children in the rural districts. The Education Act of 1876 left the framing of byelaws as to half-timers, and exemption from attendance at school after passing certain standards, to local machinery of a somewhat clumsy and expensive kind. Before the School Attendance Committee could make byelaws on these points they had to receive a requisition from the parish, and a very large proportion of parishes had let the matter slip, and done nothing. Lord Spencer proposed to enable the Committee to dispense with this requisition, and to provide farther that, if they did not frame byelaws before the close of the current year, the Education Department should frame byelaws for them. The Bill also proposed to regulate certain matters in which there had been collision between the Education Acts and the Factory and Workshops Acts.

Another educational measure, explained by Lord Spencer on July 9—a Bill for the Advancement of Secondary Education in Scotland—was not so fortunate. A Commission had been appointed in 1878 to deal with educational endowments in Scotland without compulsory powers; but it was intimated at the time that, unless the institutions affected took action, a compulsory measure would be introduced. Very few of the institutions had taken action; only a sixth or seventh part of the endowments available had been dealt with. It was proposed that the new Commission should deal with the remainder, but the institutions commanded sufficient local influence to be able to defeat the Bill. It passed the Lords, but such was the pressure of business in the Commons that the Government could not get it through except as unopposed business. A Scotch member gave, and refused to withdraw, notice of opposition, and it was choked off.

At one time the Government were put upon the defence of the Fourth Schedule of the new Education Code, allowing grants for certain extra subjects. On June 18, Lord Norton moved an address to the Crown praying for the omission of this schedule from the Code, and the address was carried. The conduct of members of the late Government in supporting this proposal, although the schedule had been introduced by themselves, had been in operation since 1875, and had been favourably reported on

by the inspectors, was severely criticised. A counter-address from the Commons in support of the schedule relieved the Government from all embarrassment in maintaining the schedule.

Two useful additions to the statute book were engineered by the President of the Board of Trade, Mr. Chamberlain, a Grain Cargoes Act, and a Seamen's Wages Act. A Bill on the former subject introduced by private members was proposed for second reading on May 31. Mr. Chamberlain suggested that the subject should be referred to a Select Committee. The appointment of this Committee on June 1 gave rise to a lively discussion on the principle on which committees should be appointed. It had been the custom that the members from the Ministerial side should be in a majority of one. But a third party had now arisen, the Home Rulers. On which side were they to be reckoned in the composition of select committees? Government claimed to have their majority of one independent of them. Sir Stafford Northcote contended that they should be reckoned as Ministerialists. To this it was replied that the practical effect of so doing would be to make the Third Party masters of the Committee. The principle asserted by the Government was carried, and the committee they appointed dealt with the question of the loading of grain cargoes with such effect and expedition that a Bill embodying their recommendations was carried before the end of the session. Mr. Chamberlain was very much complimented on the tact and energy with which he piloted the measure through committee and past its third reading, at the close of the Wednesday sitting on August 25. In the Payment of Seamen's Wages Act, a principle was carried into law with very little opposition for which Mr. Plimsoll had in vain contended in the previous Parliament. An end was put to the system of advance notes for the payment of a seaman's wages conditionally on his going to sea, by enacting that such notes should be void, and that money paid in satisfaction of any such document should not be deducted from a seaman's wages.

The Postmaster-General, Mr. Fawcett, had also the charge of two valuable but unsensational measures, the Savings Bank Bill, and the Post-office Money Orders Bill. The first was explained by Mr. Gladstone upon its second reading on June 18, but was left in Mr. Fawcett's charge when it reached its later stages at the close of the session. The immediate cause of the Bill was the fact that there had been an accumulating deficiency in connection with the Savings Bank system, which had reached the sum of more than three and a half millions. This had been for some time a concealed portion of the National Debt, but Sir Stafford Northcote had taken the step of taking the interest upon the deficiency as a separate vote. Mr. Gladstone now proposed to provide for the extinction of the deficiency by the creation of terminable annuities, and for the stoppage of the annual loss by a small reduction in the rate of interest—from $3\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 per cent. These were the main objects of the Bill, but it contained two minor proposals—one to raise

the limit of total deposits from 200*l.* to 300*l.*, and the limit of annual deposits from 30*l.* to 100*l.*; and the other to throw open the public funds through the Savings Banks to investors of sums of 10*l.* The first of these proposals was objected to on the ground that it would interfere with private banking enterprise. But the objection was not sustained and the Bill became law.

The object of the Money Orders Act was to reduce the charge for orders and facilitate their currency. The cost of orders for sums under 10*s.* had hitherto been 2*d.* For notes of 1*s.* the charge was now to be $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*; for notes up to 10*s.*, 1*d.*; and for notes up to 1*l.*, 2*d.*; and the transmission of the notes was made less cumbrous. A small experimental reform was also introduced by Mr. Fawcett at the Post Office, in connection with the Savings Bank. It was provided that forms containing twelve spaces each could be obtained at the Post Office, and when a penny stamp had been affixed in each space the form might be put in the Savings Bank, and an account opened in the name of the depositor. Certain counties were selected in which this experiment for the encouragement of petty thrift might be tried.

There was not much time available in the course of the session for legislation at the instance of private members. The most important Bill of this class introduced was Mr. Ashton Dilke's Hours of Polling Bill, the second reading of which was carried without a division on June 2. Both the Government and the Opposition reserved the right to move amendments in Committee; but Sir W. Harcourt promised the Bill hearty support on behalf of the Government, and on the part of the Opposition the chief amendment hinted at was one by Mr. Gorst, to the effect that it should be applied to counties as well as to boroughs. The rejection of the Bill, on the ground that it would increase the risks of rioting and intimidation, was moved by Mr. Mark Stewart, but was not persisted in.

Not the least significant act of the session was the passing of Sir Wilfrid Lawson's local option resolution, on June 18, by 229 to 203. But the significance of this resolution, as appeared from the debates, was not that a majority of the House was in favour of the Permissive Bill; it only expressed a general conviction that the existing licensing laws did not work creditably, and that something should be done to amend them. Mr. Gladstone did not profess to be able to see his way more clearly to a practicable reform than when the subject was before Parliament in March; and not being able to recommend any such scheme to the House, he declined to vote for the resolution, not because he considered the present system all that it should be, but because he objected to Parliament's passing abstract resolutions without any practical proposal in view.

Perhaps the greatest surprise of the session, not connected with the Bradlaugh incident, was the vote of the House in favour of Mr. Briggs's resolution condemning the proposal to erect a monument to the late Prince Louis Napoleon in Westminster Abbey.

Mr. Gladstone deprecated the interference of the House of Commons with Westminster Abbey, and the gallantry of the young Prince and his father's friendship for England were insisted upon by several speakers, some of whom used considerable strength of language with respect to the agitation out of doors against the monument. But Mr. Beresford Hope offered to support Mr. Briggs if he would withdraw the reference in his motion to the Bonaparte family, and confine it to a protest against the monument as being inconsistent with the national character of the Abbey. Sir Wilfrid Lawson said he had reason to believe that the proposed monument was objectionable to the French Government, and that they were only restrained by courtesy from interfering; and Mr. Broadhurst spoke to the strong feeling of resentment which the proposal had roused among the working classes of France, and which were sympathised with by the working classes of England. Mr. Briggs's resolution was carried by 162 to 147, although most of the members of the Ministry, with the exception of Mr. Bright, Mr. Chamberlain, Sir Charles Dilke, Mr. Fawcett, and Mr. Lefevre, voted for passing it by. The incident was commented on as being significant of the temper of the new House.

Mr. Gladstone's serious illness at the beginning of August arrested universal attention and sympathy. For a few days, till his life was pronounced to be out of danger, it was the all-engrossing subject of public interest. The news that he was seriously ill first got abroad on a Sunday evening, and then it became known that for some time his friends had warned him that he was working too hard, and advised him to take rest. It appeared that he had been closely occupied all Friday, and in the evening complained of feeling a chill, and went home. Sir Andrew Clark was sent for, and pronounced him to be suffering from fever, with slight congestion of the base of the left lung. A bulletin to this effect was published in the papers of Monday, August 2, and an excitement was produced throughout the country which had had no parallel since the serious illness of the Prince of Wales. The interest was by no means confined to party. Lord Beaconsfield sent a distinguished messenger to ask after the health of his great rival, and the chiefs of the Opposition were among the first to make visits of kindly inquiry at the doors of his house in Downing Street. The traffic in that street was stopped, and from morning till night it was thronged with sympathetic crowds from all classes and all parties. The various journals vied with one another in their expressions of respect and solicitude. "However unwelcome the occasion," said the *Pall Mall Gazette*, "it is pleasant to be reminded that there is a limit to the heat and passion of partisan warfare." "A statesman," wrote the *Standard*, "so enthusiastically attached to his own opinions as the Premier, and so persistent in advocating them, must necessarily excite no small amount of political antagonism, which will sometimes seem to degenerate into personal animosity. But it only needs an occasion like the

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present to convince us that the language of politics is invariably tinged with exaggeration, and that the most resolute opponents of the Prime Minister in Parliament entertain for him feelings of perfect kindness and genuine admiration." In a few days the illness took a favourable turn, and the patient made rapid progress to recovery. On Saturday, August 28, Mr. Gladstone was back in his place in Parliament, with every appearance of renewed strength.

During Mr. Gladstone's absence the leadership of the House devolved upon Lord Hartington. It was a severe trial of capacity, for the opposition was keen and hot, and the House was not in the best of tempers at the prospect of abnormally prolonged sittings. Lord Hartington abundantly justified the belief of those who had confidence in his powers of rising to an occasion. At first it was supposed that Mr. Gladstone's breakdown would be fatal to the Ministerial programme, and for some days, whenever Lord Hartington rose, the House listened eagerly for the names of the measures that were to be sacrificed. Members could hardly be persuaded that the Government, without Mr. Gladstone's assistance, were resolved to carry every one of their measures except the Vaccination Bill. That Lord Hartington would meet efforts to delay business and to obtrude inconvenient questions with firmness was expected, but he developed a power of putting down troublesome opponents with sharp, telling retorts, which fairly took followers and opponents alike by surprise. The opinion was universally expressed, at the close of the Session, that he had established a reputation as a first-rate Parliamentary leader, under very trying circumstances. The seal was set upon this reputation by an elaborate reply, on August 20, to an oft-repeated accusation that the Government were hurrying through measures at a period of the session when reasonable time could not be afforded for their discussion. He made his first good point by saying that the introduction of measures was subject not only to "reasonable time," but to discussion at "a reasonable length." Then he supplied the House with some interesting statistics as to the Fourth Party and some of the Parnellites. Mr. Gorst had made one hundred and five speeches and asked eighty-five questions; Sir H. Wolff had made sixty-eight speeches and had asked thirty-four questions; Lord R. Churchill had made seventy-four speeches and had asked twenty-one questions; Mr. Biggar had made fifty-eight speeches and had asked fourteen questions; Mr. Finigan had made forty-seven speeches and had asked ten questions; and Mr. A. O'Connor had made fifty-five speeches, but had asked only two questions. As these numbers were read out there were continual bursts of laughter varied with irate cheers. Six members, continued the noble Marquis, had thus made 407 speeches; and allowing ten minutes to each speech, they had occupied about a fortnight of the working time of the House. If all of the 652 members occupied a similar time, the session would last about four years, which, said Lord Hartington, winding

up the calculation, as Euclid remarked in similar circumstances, was absurd. The offending members had frequently stated that they had no desire to obstruct; but, he went on to triumphantly ask, amid the excited cheers of the Ministerialists, what would be the time occupied if a similar number of members *had* desired to obstruct? This might be freedom of discussion for these six members, but it was complete exclusion from discussion for the vast majority of the members of the House. This state of things would soon become intolerable; it was not, the noble lord added, amid loud and prolonged cheers, very far from that position now. And then he ended with a declaration of the determination of the Government to proceed with the business. The House, when he sat down, was a scene of unusual excitement, the cheering lasting for some minutes.

Irish business occupied a very large portion of the time of the session, and Irish business supplied the occasion of the most exciting incidents at its close. The rejection of the Disturbance Bill intensified the Land League agitation in Ireland, and furnished its leaders with a new text. The member for Galway, Mr. T. P. O'Connor, gave notice of a motion for the abolition of the hereditary chamber, but strong language in Ireland itself was not confined to attacks on the House of Lords, and discontent did not express itself only in language. Soon after the rejection of the Bill there came most disquieting reports from Ireland. There were riots at evictions; tenants who had ventured to take the place of evicted occupiers were assaulted, their property damaged, their ricks burnt, their cattle maimed; there was a mysterious robbery of arms from a ship lying in Queenstown harbour, and it was said that a plot had been discovered for the blowing up of Cork barracks. Great indignation was excited above everything by the outrages on dumb animals, and this indignation was loudly expressed when one of the Irish members, Mr. John Dillon, made a speech at a Land League Meeting which was apparently an incitement to such outrages, and also to organised insurrection. Mr. Dillon expressed a significant opinion that cattle would not thrive upon the fields of a supplanter, and, urging upon his hearers the importance of organisation, said that with 300,000 men enrolled in the Land League, and trained like regiments of soldiers, all the army of England would not be able to levy rent in the country. Questioned in Parliament as to whether he was aware of this speech, and what the Government proposed to do with the speaker, Mr. Forster declared that "its wickedness could only be equalled by its cowardice." A storm gathered thereupon among the Irish members, but Mr. Forster for the moment escaped it by making a hurried visit to Ireland. The disturbed state of the country in consequence of the rejection of the Disturbance Bill was construed to be the reason for this visit. A significant addition was made to the number of troops quartered in Ireland. On Mr. Forster's return Mr. Dillon demanded an explanation of the language that had been applied to

him. Mr. Forster adhered to it; and the storm which had been gathering burst upon him, and raged throughout nearly the whole of the sitting of August 23. The man who called John Dillon a coward must have forgotten who his father was; the man who called such a speech as his an incitement to crime declared war against Ireland.

Next day there was a debate on Home Rule, Mr. Parnell moving that the rejection of the Disturbance Bill had supplied one more proof of the necessity of a radical change in the Parliamentary relations between England and Ireland. In opposing this motion, Mr. Forster made a statement which drew down upon him great wrath from another quarter of the political heavens. The Government, he said, were determined to maintain the law in Ireland. If they did not find the existing powers of the law equal to the maintenance of order, they would have to call Parliament together and ask for increased powers. He did not believe such a course would be necessary. But, he added, "if they should find, what during the past two or three weeks they had not found, and which he trusted they would not find, that the landlords of Ireland were to any great extent making use of their powers so as to force the Government to support them in the exercise of injustice, they would certainly accompany any request for special powers with some sort of a Bill which should prevent them from being obliged to support injustice. He thought that the Irish people, notwithstanding the history of centuries, might have sufficient hope and confidence and trust to allow the Government one year at least in which to try and solve the most difficult problem before them." Mr. Forster was sorely taken to task for this "treasonable concession," as it was called, to Irish clamour. His implied description of the existing law as unjust was denounced as an incitement to the Irish people to break it. He declared, in reply to these taunts, that his language was being "intentionally misrepresented." The Government were quite resolved to enforce the law; but if they had to ask for increased powers, they would accompany the coercive measure with a measure for the removal of what they believed to be injustice.

Thus this incident passed off, but another crisis was presently brought on by a threat from Mr. Parnell, that if the Government did not give satisfactory assurances as to their intentions next session, he and his followers would obstruct the passing of the Irish Estimates. In response to this, Lord Hartington said that the time had come for plain speaking; the Government had no further concessions to make, and nothing to add to their previous assurances. It had been said that a majority of Liberal peers had opposed the Disturbance Bill in the House of Lords, and that this fact was evidence of the unfairness with which English politicians regarded Irish affairs. Their unsympathetic spirit, Lord Hartington bluntly said, would not be amended if Irish members obstructed public business.

This reply was considered eminently unsatisfactory, and there were rumours that, when the Irish Estimates came on, obstruction would be resorted to on a scale hitherto unheard of. The rumours proved to be well founded. When the House went into Committee on the Irish Estimates, on Thursday, the 26th, the Constabulary vote was violently opposed, and by speeches on alternate motions for reporting progress and for the Speaker to leave the Chair, the House was kept sitting throughout the night, and did not rise till ten minutes to one on Friday afternoon. The Government had to consent to the postponement of the Constabulary vote, which was finally got rid of, after another debate, on August 30.

Yet another hitch occurred, in consequence of the rejection of another Irish Bill by the House of Lords. Much indignation was expressed by the members of that House at the lateness of the period at which measures came to them from the Commons. There was no time, it was complained, for the proper consideration of them; the Upper Chamber was insulted, treated with contempt, practically told that it was a nonentity, in being asked to pass measures in such circumstances. The Lords were only prevented by the judicious advice of Lord Beaconsfield from marking their sense of displeasure by rejecting the Ground Game Bill. At Lord Redesdale's instigation, they seized upon a humble victim, an Irish Registration of Voters Bill, intended to put the law of registration on the same footing in Ireland as in England. This Bill was presented on September 1, and, in a thin House, summarily rejected, in spite of the pleading of the Ministerial peers.

This disturbed for a moment the understanding on which matters were proceeding smoothly in the Commons between the Government and the Irish members. Mr. Parnell proposed that the main clause of the measure should be "tacked" to the Appropriation Bill. The Government declined. Then he proposed that the main clause should be sent up again to the House of Lords, as a separate Bill. To this also the Government objected, on the ground that the measure was not urgent. But, in response to one of Mr. Parnell's proposals, Mr. Forster made a speech about the conduct of the House of Lords which was accepted as some consolation by the Irish members for the rejection of the Registration Bill. "If such a course were often taken," he said, "it would make it very difficult for the two Houses to go on," and the Commons "might think that some change in the constitution of the House of Lords was desirable or might be necessary." With reference to the complaint made by Lord Redesdale of want of time, Mr. Forster said that "this was one of the matters which especially *noblesse oblige*, and that the House of Lords ought not to allege the argument of personal inconvenience to prevent Bills sent up from that House at any time of the session being thoroughly considered. They could not forget—at any rate the country could not forget—these two facts: first, that the Commons were the hardest worked law-makers in the

world; and second that, on the other hand, probably there was no assembly of law-makers with so much power and so little personal labour as the House of Lords. They must also not forget the fact that they were the representatives of the people, and that the power which the Lords had was simply owing to an accident of birth."

This Radical speech from a Minister of the Crown was naturally made the subject of much comment abroad as well as at home. The echoes of it had not died away when Parliament was prorogued on Tuesday, September 7.

CHAPTER IV.

Discussion of Foreign Policy—The State of Ireland—The Revolutionary Brotherhood—The Land League—Anti-landlord meetings and speeches—Mr. Parnell at Ennis—The murder of Lord Mountmorres—Cabinet Council—The Dulcigno Crisis—Growth of the Land League agitation—Excitement and discussion of Government policy in England—Prosecution of Land Leaguers—Mr. Gladstone at Lord Mayor's Banquet—The Boycott episode—"Boycotting" as a political instrument—The Land League in Ulster—The Government on its defence.

THE discussion of foreign affairs had occupied a very small portion of Parliamentary time during the session, though the development of Mr. Gladstone's policy in the East was closely watched. Sir Charles Dilke was plied with questions, and his answers were much admired for their compactness and discretion. The course of events in the East is narrated in another part of the "Register." The challenges that the action of the Government received in Parliament were fitful, sporadic and unauthoritative; and the statement contained in the Queen's Speech at the close of the session might have been stereotyped as the defence of the Government in the undetermined state of affairs:—"Unfortunate delays had taken place in the settlement of the Eastern Question, but for the attainment of the objects in view the Government continued to place reliance on the fact that the Concert of Europe had been steadily maintained in regard to the Eastern Question, and that the Powers who signed the Treaty of Berlin were pressing on the Sublime Porte, with all the authority which belonged to their united action, the measures which in their belief were best calculated to ensure tranquillity in the East."

There was probably a general feeling throughout the country that there had been enough for a time of discussion of foreign policy, though the opponents of the Ministry in the press continued to denounce the Concert of Europe as a "hollow sham," and to deride the attempt to extort the complete fulfilment of the Treaty of Berlin by such an instrument as "a pretentious farce." There was no heart even in the discussion of Indian policy, though there were not wanting exciting events to give it stimulation. Upon the great question of Afghanistan the general public had

settled down into an attitude of indifference as regarded details, and a conviction that we ought to withdraw as much and as speedily as possible. The frightful disaster to General Burrows's force at Khoosk-i-Nakud, news of which reached England on August 28, banished indifference as to facts, and reawakened for a little while energetic discussion of policy. News from Candahar was for some weeks eagerly looked for, till Sir Frederick Roberts's rapid march from Cabul and dispersion of Ayoob Khan's beleaguering force removed all anxiety. The first result of our reverse was to strengthen the conviction that Candahar ought not to be retained, though the contrary was argued in many leading articles and many letters to the *Times* and other newspapers. Lord Hartington made a statement on Indian finance on August 17, but he was unable then to give any decisive information on the two questions which had been most keenly discussed—what share of the Afghan War expenses was to be borne by the Imperial Exchequer, and how the blunder in the estimates originated? For the answer to these questions also people generally were content to wait. On the subject of South Africa discussions on the breakdown of the Confederation scheme, on the retention of the Transvaal, and the probable effect of the disarmament of the Basutos were followed with languid attention. The interest in these questions was very soon reawakened by events detailed elsewhere, but at the close of the session the foreboders of difficulty were in the position of Cassandra.

But while there was this lack of interest in the discussion of foreign policy, there was no lack of interest in what was happening abroad. The interest in events was all the keener that men generally had exhausted argument, and were looking to events for the justification of their respective opinions. When Parliament rose, there were two subjects that dwarfed all others in the public eye, and one was a foreign subject—the progress making by the European Powers with their diplomatic notes and their naval demonstration in effecting the surrender of Dulcigno to the Montenegrins.

The other was the state of Ireland. A sensation was caused about the middle of August by the publication in the *New York Herald* of what purported to be an account of the constitution, strength, and objects of the Irish Revolutionary Brotherhood, alleged to be a widely ramified and strictly organised secret society, having for its aim the liberation of Ireland from English rule, and the establishment of an Irish Republic. It had been known before that in America greenback notes were issued payable by the Irish Republic, and they were said to be taken up in considerable numbers by servant girls and other enthusiasts, but the general impression was that this was simply a shameless fraud. But might it not have a political object? The *New York Herald's* account of the Brotherhood was most circumstantial, including extracts from their constitution and byelaws, and an estimate of their

strength, which was said to number 36,000 in Ireland itself, and 11,500 in England and Scotland. An outrage in Sheffield about the same time, where an Irishman was shot, and though in imminent peril of his life stedfastly refused to reveal who were his assailants, pointed to the existence of some secret organisation; but people generally were incredulous as to how much was fact and how much fiction in the *New York Herald's* circumstantial description.

One thing alleged about this Brotherhood was that it was hostile to the Land League, as not going far enough in its purposes. It was said that members of the Brotherhood were reprimanded, degraded, and expelled for giving countenance to the Land League, and trying to use their organisation in its favour. Whether in connection with the Revolutionary Brotherhood or not, there were many signs at its meetings that many Irishmen objected to its method of constitutional agitation, and expected little good from it. Thus the curious anomaly was presented that there was in Ireland an open organisation pledged to an agitation which in England was considered dangerous and revolutionary, while there was alleged to exist a secret organisation hostile to this as being too limited in its aims, and too timid in its methods, and there was no doubt whatever that hostility on that ground existed, whether secretly organised for more desperate purposes or not.

Indeed, the orators of the Land League traded on this feeling of hostility to its professed aims and methods. With very few exceptions they spoke only of constitutional agitation, of moral demonstration, as the means by which they were to extort from England the concession of their claims, but hints were frequently thrown out that physical force stood ready or would have to be got ready in the background. An utterance by Mr. M. Boyton, the secretary of the Land League, at a meeting held at Cahir, Tipperary, on September 19, may be taken as an example of these inflammatory innuendoes. "Ireland to-day," he said, "needs a united army to achieve her place among the nations. We want the obsolete cavalry of Repeal, we want, perhaps, the artillery of Home Rule, we want the rank and file of the Land League; ay, and who knows but we may want his brother engineer, who with patient dint is working till the day comes when we shall give him the signal to fire the citadel."

The abolition of landlordism, the abolition of an occupying proprietary, the substitution of such a proprietary in the soil as would procure permanently to the industrious occupier the peaceable possession of his home and the fruits of his industry—these were various expressions of the aims of the Land League at the monster demonstrations held every Sunday in different parts of the country. Nominally their programme was what came to be known as the "three F's," "fixity of tenure, fair rent, and free sale"—free sale, that is to say, of the tenant's interest; but the unmeasured language of excited orators went beyond this demand,

and laid down the more sweeping principle that the soil should belong to the cultivator. How the transference of the soil from existing owners was to be effected was seldom explained. The cautious speakers who affirmed that they wanted to interfere with no man's rights, and that the rights of the landlord were to be respected, were the exception rather than the rule.

The Land League set its face against the Land Commission, appointed by the Government to inquire into the facts of the land system in Ireland. It was denounced as a mere pretext for delay. The names of the members, it was said—the Earl of Bessborough, Baron Dowse, the O'Connor Don, Mr. Kavanagh, and Mr. Shaw—were sufficient evidence that the commission was a mockery. There was no representative of the tenant-farmer upon it. The Land League warned the farmers of Ireland against going before it to give evidence. Mr. P. J. Smyth, in an eloquent letter, deprecated this advice as suicidal, and implored the farmers not to be guided by it. He was warmly denounced in consequence at many a meeting as a traitor.

The rising of Parliament set free various Irish members to join in the campaign. Great meetings were held, for which the local railways ran special trains, and orators gave their audiences special value for the distances they had come to hear. Enthusiastic addresses of thanks and congratulation to Mr. Parnell as the leader of the movement were voted at many of these meetings. Mr. Parnell himself made his first speech, after the rising of Parliament, at Ennis, and its tenor, amidst the prevailing excitement, was looked forward to with some curiosity. He said he did not wish to coerce the farmers one way or other with regard to giving evidence before the Land Commission. For himself, he believed that it was intended to whittle down the demands of the Irish farmers, to ascertain the very least that they would accept. What would be said, he asked, if farmers went in large numbers to give evidence? That they had accepted the Commission, and would be bound by its report, and the Government would have an excuse for putting off legislation till they had read the report and the evidence. Touching on the question of evictions, Mr. Parnell next asked what was to be done with a tenant bidding for a farm from which another tenant had been evicted? A voice answered, "Shoot him!"—but Mr. Parnell said there was a more Christian and charitable way, namely, shunning in the street, in the shop, in the market-place, even in the place of worship, "as if he were the leper of old." Little attention was paid at the time outside Ireland to this advice, which had, indeed, for a year past been frequently heard from the mouths of Mr. Parnell and his fellow-agitators. Nobody expected that anything practical would come of it. Nobody recognised in it the conception of a new and most powerful weapon, an original addition to the armoury of discontented masses. Reasoning from ordinary notions of race, the most Celtic of Celtic peoples, and therefore the most subject to blind

hysterics, and the most incapable of steady combination, could hardly have been expected to give effect to an advice which demanded for its fulfilment wide organisation and rigid discipline. The realisation of the idea in the system of "Boycotting" was probably as much a surprise to the agitators as to the rest of the world.

More attention was attracted at the time by the peroration of Mr. Parnell's speech at Ennis. This was strongly condemned by the English press as a veiled incitement to outrage. "We have been accused," he said, "of preaching Communistic doctrines when we told the people not to pay an unjust rent, and the following out of that advice in a few of the Irish counties had shown the English Government the necessity for a radical alteration in the land laws. But how would they like it if we told the people some day or other not to pay any rent until this question is settled. We have not told them that yet, and I suppose it may never be necessary for us to speak in that way. I suppose the question will be settled peaceably, fairly, and justly to all parties. If it should not be settled, we cannot continue to allow this millstone to hang round the neck of our country, throttling its industry, and preventing its progress. It will be for the consideration of wiser heads than mine whether, if the landlords continue obdurate, and refuse all just concessions, we shall not be obliged to tell the people of Ireland to strike against rent until this question has been settled. And if the five hundred thousand tenant-farmers of Ireland struck against the ten thousand landlords, I should like to see where they would get police and soldiers enough to make them pay."

Mr. Parnell defined his purposes more explicitly at a meeting of the Land League on the 28th, with reference to a letter in which Mr. O'Shaughnessy, a moderate Home Ruler, asked to be admitted a member of the League. Mr. O'Shaughnessy had hitherto held aloof, objecting as he said to the compulsory expropriation of landlords. But now, on being given to understand that this doctrine could be held with a difference, he was desirous of joining, only in doing so he expressly stated the understanding on which he joined—"peace and goodwill to all landlords willing to give their tenants secure and inviolable tenure at a fair rent; compulsory expropriation of all who refused to make this concession." Mr. Parnell admitted that this was fair, though he objected to the League's committing itself to the details of a land settlement at that stage. "What was wanted," he said, "was the will on the part of the English people to settle the land question, and the object of the agitation was to produce this will. Once minded to settle the question, once convinced that a settlement could not be evaded or postponed, they would settle it. He would not bind himself down to any particular mode, but he agreed that an arrangement by which the landlord should be converted into a fixed rent-charger, or by which the tenant, after paying a fixed annual sum for thirty-five years, should at the end of that time become absolute owner, would be a fair arrangement. And their

English rulers must bear in mind that they need not hope to settle the question without taking compulsory powers against certain landlords, and that such devices as the extension of the Ulster custom, or the Bright clauses of the Land Act, were not adequate to the demands of the case."

People were beginning to shake their heads and their fists, to say that the land agitation was reaching a pitch where it would be necessary for the Government to interfere, and to wish that the agitators would go far enough to get themselves hung or transported, when an incident occurred that greatly increased the excitement—the murder of Lord Mountmorres near his residence, Ebor Hall, in County Galway. On September 25 Lord Mountmorres was found shot dead with six revolver bullets in his body, within a mile of his own house. It was said that he had unhappy relations with his tenantry. The crime produced a great sensation, and the sensation was increased when it transpired that a cottager near the spot where the body was found would not allow it to be brought into his house, that a surgeon might ascertain whether the victim was dead beyond recovery. So great was the excitement occasioned by the event, coming as it did at a time when men's feelings were already strung to a high pitch, that that adjuration which is commonly the sign of perplexed alarm, made itself heard very loudly. The Government were admonished not to lose their heads. With this admonition came two opposite counsels, one for coercive, the other for remedial, legislation.

A meeting under the auspices of the Land League was held on the Sunday after the murder in the immediate neighbourhood of the scene of the crime, but the speakers at this, and for some time at other Land League demonstrations, ignored the existence of outrages. There was one exception; Mr. John Dillon, Mr. Forster's antagonist, protested at one of the meetings against shooting men in the dark from behind hedges; let them meet their adversaries, he said, face to face and in the open day. Meantime the orators of the League continued to denounce landlordism, and Mr. Parnell became still more explicit in his description of what he would consider a satisfactory substitute for the existing land system. At Kilkenny, on October 3, he professed his utter disbelief in the possibility of any satisfactory system of partnership between landlord and tenant being devised. "One of them must go;" and "it was more easy to remove the few than the many." Partnership between landlord and tenant was an *ignis fatuus*; if the Irish farmer pursued it, and insisted upon fixity of tenure at valued rents, they would find that the Government would not consent to appoint Courts of Arbitration for fixing the rents. "If then," he said, "you go on the principle of maintaining or altering the present system without sweeping it away, you will be given, as I said a while ago, an amendment of the Land Act, and you will not get the Government arbitration for the valuation of rent; so that having aroused this gigantic force for the settlement of the land

question, you will find yourselves left in the lurch, having fallen short of the mark of fixity of tenure, and not having obtained the abolition of landlords. Let, then, your power be directed to the purpose of bringing about a natural system of land tenure in Ireland. Do not waste your resources in striving to prop up landlordism, but ask for your right, and your right is that the man who tills the soil may own it."

Mr. Parnell again and again repeated that it was the business of the Land League to agitate, not to formulate demands. There were two sets of Land Reformers, he said at Longford, on the 17th, one representing the low-water, the other the high-water mark of land reform; the men, on the one hand, who asked the Government to fix the rents which the tenants should pay as a never-ceasing tax; and, on the other, those who claimed that the tenants, by paying rack-rents for centuries, had long since paid the landlord the fee simple of the land, and were rather entitled to restitution than bound in justice to pay more. Between these low-water and high-water marks there was a long interval, and "the National Land League of Ireland had not yet decided where along the line it would halt." "The extreme limits of our demands," Mr. Parnell frankly said, "when the time comes must be measured by the result of your exertions this winter."

Immediately after the murder of Lord Mountmorres, there was a rumour that Parliament would be summoned for a short session in November, to consider the disturbed state of Ireland, and the unsatisfactory prospects in the East, where the European Concert threatened to fail when it came to the point of using force to compel the cession of Dulcigno. Thus, at the end of September, the Ministry were confronted by two tremendous difficulties—difficulties, as it happened, in the two fields alluded to in Lord Beaconsfield's manifesto before the general election—Ireland and the East.

A meeting of the Cabinet Council was suddenly summoned for September 30, to consider these two great anxieties. "Five months of Liberal rule," said one of the organs of the Opposition, "and already a Cabinet Council in September." Commenting on the meeting, the *Standard* said that an unbidden guest was present, "the spectre of a mocking failure." It was remarked that the sitting lasted four hours, and as it was discovered that several Ambassadors were waiting for Lord Granville at the Foreign Office, and that a message from the Turkish Embassy was delivered before the Council rose, the inference was drawn that the crisis in the East was the chief subject of deliberation. The failure of the naval demonstration to extort any admissible concession from the Sultan was generally taken for granted, and curiosity was on tiptoe to discover what would be the next act in the drama. For a week nothing was known for certain, but it was rumoured that the English Government were proposing to the other Powers to make another demonstration before Constantinople itself. While action thus hung in the balance, the publica-

tion of a Note from the Porte to the European Powers embodying the "final resolutions" of the Ottoman Government on the Montenegrin Question, the Greek Question, the reforms in Armenia and the Organic Regulation of the European provinces of the Empire, produced a strong current of feeling against the Porte's continued procrastination. This feeling was expressed on the Continent, at Vienna and at Paris, as much as in London.

Then came rumours—rumour was never perhaps at any crisis more busy, more reckless, or more calculating—that the Powers were inclined, after the presentation of the contumacious Note, to accede to the English proposals, which were said to embrace a partial blockade of the Turkish coast in the *Ægean*. While everybody was wondering whether a European conflagration was imminent, suddenly the Porte gave signs of yielding. The Note of October 11, to the effect that the Sultan would issue immediate orders for the cession of Dulcigno, at the same time hoping that the Naval Demonstration would be given up, gave an immense relief to the tension of the public mind concerning Eastern affairs. It was not till November 26 that the Montenegrins actually entered on possession of Dulcigno, but with the Porte's conditional surrender, the public took for granted that another phase of the Turkish difficulty was at an end, and that the great crisis was postponed. Dulcigno ceased to be a central point in European interest, and only specialists watched the halting progress of events to what the general instinct felt to be a foregone conclusion.

Public feeling in England had enough to give it intense occupation nearer home. With the lull in Eastern affairs, the Irish storm daily increased in violence. The murderers of Lord Mountmorres were not discovered. A huge reward was offered in vain. Conflicting opinions were published as to his relations with his tenantry; but one thing was clear, that the enmity of the neighbourhood was not satisfied even with his death. His dead body had to be escorted by armed policemen, the car-drivers refused to assist in carrying the coffin from the hearse; and the surviving members of his family were persecuted with threatening letters, and denied the smallest service and the commonest necessities of life. While this crowning outrage was fresh in the public mind, reports of less signal acts of violence came crowding in. Process-servers were hooted, pelted, beaten within an inch of their lives; care-takers and bailiffs in possession had shots fired into their houses, or were broken in upon by bands of masked men and maltreated; evicted tenants were reinstated; tenants who had dared to pay a rent above Griffith's valuation found their cattle maimed; land agents received threatening letters, and had graves dug before their doors. After a fortnight of such minor misdemeanours, there was another agrarian murder, as a startling variation to the tale of disturbance and insecurity. A landlord, on the Bay of Bantry, was fired at from behind a wall as he was driving home, on October 16, and his car-driver, a man named Downey, shot dead.

The people of England were excited spectators of this state of things. The journals of the Opposition at once raised a cry for coercion. Where is the Government? was the question asked. What measures do the Queen's Ministers mean to take in the face of such unparalleled disorder, such open and avowed defiance of the law? Do they mean to stand by and let ruffianism and organised resistance to the law take its course? A formal demand for protection from the chief objects of the hostility of the Land League orators and the secret instruments of violence added force to these questions. More than a hundred landowners and agents met at Dublin, early in October, and sent a deputation to the Lord Lieutenant. Their proceedings were private; but it was understood that they laid before the Government facts in proof of the reign of terror that prevailed, and the danger of assassination in which many of them personally stood. Facts of this nature appeared in abundance in the reports of special correspondents, and in letters addressed to the newspapers by victims of popular hatred and persecution. What was to be done? The Government gave no sign; but various opposite policies were pressed upon them. The most extreme of these was the immediate suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act. The *Daily Telegraph* insisted vehemently upon this measure. "We may not be able," it said, "to catch the actual murderers who have already committed crimes, but we might place whole districts of the country, now rampant with ruffianism, under a wholesome 'reign of terror' of the law." The *St. James's Gazette* denounced the "imbecility" of the Government, and warned them that, if they were afraid to ask for the necessary powers, it was their duty to "make way for men of more energetic character, who will not hesitate to uphold the constitution in Ireland even at the cost of proclaiming a practical state of siege."

On the other hand, in spite of the frightful disorder in Ireland, there was a strong feeling throughout the country, testified to more especially by the provincial journals, that no exceptional coercive measures should be resorted to without an accompanying amendment of the Irish land laws. Lord R. Churchill expressed the opinion that the Irish question was "bosh"; and that nothing was needed but the strong hand. Lord Salisbury, not far behind the energetic leader of the Fourth Party, attributed all the disorder in Ireland to the electioneering habits of the Liberal party. "Real danger or difficulty," he said, in a speech at Taunton, on the 26th of October, "arises from the practice which, for electoral purposes in recent years, the Liberal party has established of paying violence in legislative coin. The peasantry of Ireland have been told that the measures of 1870 were passed mainly in consequence of the atrocious outrages of which, in 1867 or 1868, certain Irishmen were guilty, and that statement was made by Mr. Gladstone in a manner which conveyed to them an irresistible conviction that the practice of similar outrages would lead to the gain of similar advantages. So long as the Liberal party buy their way to power by

promises of this kind, and when they have gained power feel under the obligation of satisfying in some sort the expectations they have raised, so long will there be no limit to the demands of the ignorant peasantry of Ireland—so long will there be from time to time a renewal of the conditions of a disorder which we now lament.”

To such dashing partisan taunts, it was retorted from the Liberal side that the cause of the aggravated disorder in Ireland was the rejection by the House of Lords of the Disturbance Bill. But on both sides, except among extreme champions, there was a tendency to sink party recrimination, to find the causes of Irish discontent in deeper and more remote circumstances than could fairly be charged upon either party. There was also a pervading impression that the occasion should not be allowed to pass without an attempt being made to grapple with and finally remove the deep-seated causes of Irish discontent. The *Times* rebuked Lord Salisbury for the party character of his speech, remarking that no one would have supposed, from what he said, that there was any Irish difficulty that could not be removed by the exercise of administrative firmness.

In contradistinction to the extreme advocates of force and nothing but force, coercion and nothing but coercion, there was another body of extremists, with their exponents on the platform and in the press, who would not hear of coercion, in the sense of exceptional measures of repression, on any conditions. What was bad in the law of Ireland—and they traced all Ireland's miseries to bad laws—ought to be amended, but the guarantees for the liberty of the subject ought to be held sacred; and it was dangerous to tamper with them, under whatever provocation. Moderate politicians, between these two extremes, were content to urge that exceptional measures of coercion, such as the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, should not be resorted to till every means of maintaining order within the existing powers of the Government had been tried and had failed. Extraordinary powers should not be sought except as a last resort. And side by side with this truism of English politics lay a conviction that extraordinary powers should not be obtained and exercised in the case of Ireland, unless the request for them were accompanied by proposals for a reform of the Irish land laws. That remedial measures should accompany coercive measures, was the doctrine preached from nearly every Liberal newspaper office throughout the kingdom; and moderate politicians of all parties seemed to be convinced at least that coercion alone without a change in the law, whether simultaneous or subsequent, would be of no avail.

But among those who were agreed as to the principles on which the crisis should be met, there was room for considerable difference of opinion as regarded time and circumstance of application. Supposing Her Majesty's Ministers, who gave no sign of their intentions, to be convinced that there must be remedial measures as well as coercive measures, there were various courses open to them. They might assume extraordinary powers in the emergency, and ask Par-

liament afterwards for an indemnity, meanwhile maturing their legislative proposals. Or they might summon Parliament at once, and submit a combined scheme of coercion and remedy to its consideration. Or they might defer the meeting of Parliament till its ordinary time, or near its ordinary time, meanwhile trusting to the administration of the existing law for the maintenance of order. A fourth course, in the judgment of exasperated critics, was open to the Government—tame acquiescence in the open defiance of the existing law, till the time should come, in ordinary course, for the application of their remedial panaceas. This was the course which the journals of the Opposition accused the Government of adopting; and weakness, imbecility, pusillanimity, secret sympathy with revolutionary doctrines, were charges freely hurled at them for so doing.

For some time, while the furious fight was raging between their critics and their apologists, the Government remained outwardly passive, though frequent Cabinet Councils bore witness to their anxious activity and deliberation. The first outcome of their consultations was the despatch of additional troops to Ireland, and the declaration of their intention to prosecute certain leaders of the Land League. Early in October it was rumoured that a prosecution of the Land Leaguers was intended, and that the law officers of the Crown in Ireland were busily engaged in preparing an indictment. These rumours became more and more definite, till it was announced that on October 23 a conference had been held at Dublin Castle, at which Mr. Forster was present, where the prosecution had been finally determined upon. The names of the men against whom it had been resolved to proceed were then given with approximate accuracy, but the criminal information against them was not actually filed till November 2. Fourteen persons in all were accused: Charles Stewart Parnell, John Dillon, Joseph Gillis Biggar, Timothy Daniel Sullivan, Thomas Sexton, Patrick Egan, Thomas Brennan, Malachi M. O'Sullivan, Michael P. Boyton, Patrick Joseph Sheridan, Joseph Gordon, Matthew Harris, John W. Walsh, and John W. Nally. These "traversers" were charged, in a long indictment consisting of nineteen counts, with conspiring to prevent payment of rents, to defeat the legal process for the enforcement of rent, to prevent the letting of evicted farms, and to create ill-will between different classes of Her Majesty's subjects. The day ultimately fixed on for the commencement of the trial was December 28.

Very different opinions were, of course, expressed as to the wisdom of these prosecutions. The incriminated persons laughed them to scorn; attended Land League meetings with all the greater frequency, and did not in the least modify their language. A few Irish politicians who had hitherto held aloof from the Land League announced that they must take their places side by side with the accused, and requested to be enrolled as members of the offending body. Indignation meetings were held and violent speeches delivered in all the principal towns throughout England

and Scotland where there was a large Irish population. Irishmen in America were invited to subscribe to the fund for the defence, and it was declared that the opportunity would be seized for laying bare in all its details the exact condition of the Irish peasantry in their relations with the landlords. With this view subpoenas were served upon landowners and estate agents in every part of Ireland.

The Opposition journals denounced the prosecution as a pusillanimous expedient which could only end in mockery, seeing that no Irish jury could be found to convict. By-and-by, the friends of the Land Leaguers endeavoured to make this hypothesis a certainty, by threatening all possible jurymen in Dublin with commercial ruin if they should dare to decide against the leaders of the Irish people. In the Liberal ranks also considerable doubt was expressed as to the policy and the principle of the prosecution. It was censured as an attempt to revive the decaying law of constructive conspiracy, a law admitting of applications dangerous to individual freedom. The *Daily News* objecting generally to State prosecutions in Ireland as weapons of proved inadequacy, hinted at the application of coercion to limited districts. On the other hand, the Government found an able though critical defender in the *Pall Mall Gazette*. "It may be true or not," this journal wrote, "that the language of Mr. Parnell and his allies has acted as a direct incitement to agrarian outrages. But, however this may be, their language is either legal or it is illegal. If it is legal, and if it is indispensable to stop them, then the law must be altered. If it is illegal, then you have no need of exceptional legislation. To settle this question, Mr. Forster naturally consults the law officers of the Irish Government. The law officers appear to have come to the conclusion that the action of the agitators of the Land League is against the law. That being the case, no other course was open to the Government than to prosecute the agitators, though the Government are at least as likely as any of their advisers outside to know all the difficulties and objections to a prosecution. Suppose that Mr. Forster had determined to abstain from prosecution, in spite of the fact that he was officially advised that Mr. Parnell and his friends were breaking the law. Suppose, moreover, that instead of doing his best to punish these offenders he had come to Parliament to ask for a suspension of Habeas Corpus. What would be the effect of the suspension of Habeas Corpus? Its effect would be to deprive every peasant in Ireland of the constitutional guarantee for his lawful rights and liberties, and to let the leaders of the agitation go scot-free. The end of it, therefore, would be that the peasants of Mayo and Galway would be punished by the loss of security for their personal freedom, though as a body they have done no wrong, while Mr. Parnell, who is believed to have broken the law, defies the Government to put him on his trial." The *Times* also urged that the prosecution was inevitable if the Government were advised by their law officers that the acts of the agitators brought them within the criminal law. At the

same time, the *Times* laid stress upon the risk involved in this course. The Government were no doubt aware of them, and faced them deliberately on their own responsibility, but the *Times* hinted that to empower the Irish Executive to suspend the Habeas Corpus by an Act similar to that which Lord Hartington carried in 1871, might be a more efficacious way of bringing agitators as well as their followers within reach of the law.

But while the discussion of the prosecution went on, the question continued to be asked, What else did the Government mean to do, and when did they mean to do it? Was Parliament not to be called together before the usual time? One side attributed the reticence of the Government to cowardice; the other commended their deliberation and caution as the highest proof of statesman-like courage. All sorts of rumours were authoritatively alleged and authoritatively denied as to discussions within the Cabinet. The speech of the Premier at the Lord Mayor's banquet was awaited with no ordinary curiosity as being likely to furnish an index to the Government policy. One passage in particular attracted attention. After speaking of the improvement of the Land Laws, and the "development" of the Land Act of 1870, as objects entertained by others besides agitators, Mr. Gladstone went on to speak amidst loud cheers of "one thought anterior to the reform and improvement of the law," namely, "the maintenance of public order." "Anxious," he said, "as we are for the practical improvement of the land laws, I assure your lordship, and all who hear me, as well as those who may become acquainted with the proceedings of this meeting, that we recognise also the priority of the duty above every other of enforcing the law for the purposes of order. And let me say one word more. We hold it our first duty to look to the law as it stands, to ascertain what its fair and just administration means. But the obligation incumbent upon us to protect every citizen in the enjoyment of his life and his property might, under certain circumstances, compel us to ask for an increase of power; and, although we will never anticipate such a contingency, nor imagine it to exist until it is proved by the clearest demonstration, yet if that contingency were realised, if the demonstration were afforded, you may rely on it we should not shrink from acting on the obligation it would entail."

Mr. Gladstone's speech effectually dissipated the notion that the Government would in no circumstances have recourse to exceptional means of maintaining order; but rumours were speedily revived to the effect that the members of the Cabinet were not at one in their views of what ought to be done, and what should be the time and manner of doing it. A series of Cabinet Councils were held in the week following the Guildhall banquet, and though there was nothing unusual in this, the meetings of Ministers were accompanied by a running fire of exceedingly circumstantial rumours of dissension. The Cabinet, it was alleged, was on the point of breaking up. Only the constant exercise of Mr. Glad-

stone's personal influence kept the jarring elements together. Mr. Forster had come back from Ireland convinced of the necessity of the immediate assumption by the Government of extraordinary powers. Two of his colleagues, Mr. Bright and Mr. Chamberlain, were irreconcilably opposed to this. Mr. Forster would no longer be responsible for the maintenance of order by the ordinary means at his disposal; and Mr. Bright and Mr. Chamberlain would not remain in the Cabinet if his wishes were complied with. This was the rumour; and the further prorogation of Parliament, announced in the *Gazette*, on the 20th, from November 29 to December 2, was hailed as a sign that the Cabinet had failed to patch up their differences, and had agreed to this temporary prorogation to gain time. A week passed of keen speculation and controversy, during which no secession from the Cabinet was announced, and then, on the 27th, it was announced that the meeting of Parliament had been definitely fixed for January 6. It was authoritatively reported that the Government had resolved to ask for no extraordinary powers till then. What their precise intentions were remained a secret; the only visible outcome was the despatch of additional troops to Ireland, and the issue of a Memorandum by Mr. Forster to the Irish magistracy, reminding them of the powers they possessed for maintaining order under the existing law, and requesting them to apply for additional force where necessary to make the law respected.

While Irish policy formed a subject of such absorbing interest, and the air was thick with complaints, denunciations, nostrums of all kinds, and bitter party recriminations, the Land League went on rapidly extending its organisation and developing the efficiency of the weapon which the Government found it so difficult to parry. It had long been a common feature at these land meetings to exact a pledge from all assembled that they would not take land from which a tenant had been evicted, or which had been surrendered in consequence of excessive rent; and further that "they would not purchase cattle or crops seized for such rent." A case which occurred in the county Mayo first revealed what an enormous power might be exercised by a united neighbourhood, resolved to neither buy nor sell nor work with a particular individual. Captain Boycott's experience was one of the most dramatically interesting episodes in the Land Agitation, and also one of the most powerful forces in the movement, as showing the Land Leaguers how to perfect their organisation. Mayo, as they after professed, taught them a lesson. Captain Boycott rented a large farm near Lough Mask, and was also the agent of Lord Erne in that neighbourhood. One of the advices most persistently tendered by the Land League was that tenants should make up their minds what rent they considered fair, and go in a body to offer that to the rent-collector. If their offer were refused, they should go away and pay nothing till the landlord came to a more reasonable frame of mind. This advice was acted on by Lord Erne's tenantry, and Captain Boycott

took out ejectment processes against them. The consequences were described by him in a letter to the *Times*, dated October 14. On September 22, the process-server had retreated on his house, followed by a howling and hooting mob. Next day a band of men came to his farm, and warned all his servants to leave, which they did. Captain Boycott was left without farm-labourer or stableman, while all his crops lay ungathered in the fields. And this was not all. The local shopkeepers were warned not to deal with him; his blacksmith, and even his laundress were forbidden to work for him; the post-boy who carried his letters was threatened; and the bearer of a telegram stopped and cautioned.

The completeness of Captain Boycott's isolation was the first great practical illustration of what Mr. Parnell meant when he deprecated the shooting of obnoxious persons, and recommended the much more Christian plan of "shunning them as if they were lepers." The results were most instructive to the Land League, although they might have remained in local obscurity but for a plan proposed by certain men of Ulster to rescue the beleaguered gentleman from his state of siege. The "expedition" of the Ulstermen for the relief of Captain Boycott made his hard case known throughout the length and breadth of the United Kingdom; and served the purpose of a gigantic advertisement to the system henceforward known as "Boycotting." The expedition was conceived and carried out in this way. When it became known, through the newspapers, how sorely Captain Boycott was beset, and how much he was likely to suffer through this social quarantine, an Ulster gentleman wrote to say that, if 500*l.* were subscribed, he would undertake to march with a sufficient number of volunteers to Captain Boycott's relief, and save his crops for him. Nearly 800*l.* was subscribed in a few days, and offers of hundreds of men came from various parts of the North. The projectors of the expedition resolved to limit the number to 100, and the Government were informed by the promoters of their intention. The Government, however, held that the number was unnecessary for the object proposed, and forbade their departure. Fearing, moreover, the results which might ensue from the arrival of a body of Orangemen in Mayo, the Government gave orders, on Monday night, for the immediate despatch of troops to Claremorris and Ballinrobe, in the immediate neighbourhood of Captain Boycott's farm. Five hundred men were sent from Dublin and 400 from the Curragh camp. Mr. Forster summoned representatives of the press in Dublin, on Monday evening, and said that while the despatch of any large body of armed Orangemen would not be allowed, the Government would undertake to give to any number of men which Captain Boycott might need for the sole purpose of saving his crops, the fullest protection to the farm, at the farm, and back from the farm. Eventually Captain Boycott stated that fifty men would suffice for his purpose, and the Government made careful preparations for the preservation of the peace; about 900 soldiers

being stationed at Ballinrobe, the nearest town to Lough Mask House. The volunteers, drawn from Cavan and Monaghan, rendezvoused at Mullingar, West Meath, and were conveyed by train to Claremorris on the 11th November.

The progress of this unique "expedition," without precedent or parallel in the world's history, was watched with lively interest. It was very generally expected that it would light the flames of civil war in Ireland. But the result was a surprise, and at the same time an enlightenment as to the power of the Land League, and the perception held by its leaders of the most efficacious way of working the weapon that chance had put into their hands. A few unfriendly cries greeted the volunteers as the train that carried them passed the stations in Mayo, but no violence was offered, and no suspicious sign of preparation for violence was observed from the pilot engine or by the patrols by whom the line was watched. Every preparation had been made to ensure the safety of the Ulstermen. It was calculated that altogether, counting police as well as military, there were 7,000 men engaged in keeping the peace in Mayo. At Claremorris station, waiting the arrival of the train, a troop of the King's Dragoon Guards and four companies of infantry were drawn up, and a troop of the 19th Hussars lined the road up to the town. The road to Ballinrobe, a distance of sixteen miles, was patrolled by mounted police. A detachment of 150 infantry, two field pieces, and 150 men of the Royal Constabulary, stood ready to act as escort. What might have happened without these elaborate precautions, it is impossible to say; but, in spite of their intense religious antipathies, the population offered no serious violence to the Orangemen. Arriving at Claremorris towards dusk, with all these arrangements made for their protection, the "invaders," as they were called, were received by an excited mob. The men hissed at them; the boys and girls threw mud; and it was found impossible to get cars to convey them to Lough Mask. They had to walk in wind and rain to Ballinrobe. But their march was unmolested. When they resumed their march next day, the crowd that gathered to gibe and jeer at them was composed almost entirely of women and children; and when they reached Lough Mask, where angry gatherings had been expected, there was not a soul to be seen but the police on guard and Captain Boycott and his family.

Anonymous proclamations were issued calling upon the men of Mayo to resent this invasion of their county by a handful of Orangemen; and while the relief force was engaged—in most inclement weather—in saving the unfortunate man's crops, there were false alarms nearly every day of projected descents upon them. But the more judicious counsels of the Land Leaguers prevailed, and Captain Boycott's crops were saved without molestation. The Ulstermen started on their return journey on the 26th. At Ballinrobe, so well was the advice of the Land League leaders obeyed, they were received with ostentatious indifference. Even the children had been schooled to greet them with ironical laughter. Captain Boycott

and his family left Lough Mask with the expedition. It had been proposed to entertain him at a congratulatory dinner in Dublin, but in consequence of threatening letters, it was considered prudent that he should leave without delay for London.

The trouble to which the Government had been put at so little comparative expense in the case of Captain Boycott, was, as we have said, a lesson to the Land League. The services of 7,000 men, Mr. Parnell boasted in a letter which he addressed at once to his sympathisers in America, had been required to save the crops on a single farm; and every pound of potatoes and every turnip saved had each cost the Government a shilling. It was a revelation to the Land League, a godsend; and the *éclat* of the incident gave an immense impulse to their cause. Henceforth their gospel to the tenants of Ireland was summed up in one word, "Boycott." The "Boycotting" of obnoxious individuals, was now the burden of their exhortations. Mr. Dillon, one of the most indefatigable speakers at Land League meetings, spoke of Boycotting as a branch of the new land law, which was above everything worthy of study. Secure and proud in the possession of this new instrument, the farmers now acted with confidence upon the advice to offer payment only on Griffith's valuation, and to pay nothing if this offer were refused. Anybody who ventured to pay more was at once Boycotted. Even a priest who had the audacity to pay his rent was at once mulcted of his tithes by orders of the executive of the local branch of the League. A doctor, guilty of the same misdemeanour, had his practice shorn from him by the same authority. The League instituted local courts, which, after due enquiry and deliberation, passed or withheld the dread sentence of Boycotting. Boycotting was not only used to punish evicting landlords and agents, tenants guilty of paying rent, and tradesmen who ventured to hold dealings with those against whom the League had pronounced its anathema; but the League was now strong enough to use this means as an instrument of extending its organisation and filling its coffers. Shopkeepers who refused to join and subscribe received reason to believe that they would be deprived of their custom; recalcitrant farmers found themselves without a market for their crops and cattle. One of the most notorious cases of Boycotting was that of Mr. Bence Jones, a large farmer and proprietor, near Clonakilty, County Cork. One of the incidents in Mr. Jones's case afforded a striking illustration of the wide-spread power of the League. After the servants had been ordered off his farm, a herd of his cattle was driven to market in Cork. Nobody would buy them. He then proposed sending them by ship to Liverpool. But after they were put on board, the cattle-dealers threatened to Boycott the shipping company unless Mr. Jones's stock were withdrawn. Even at Dublin, to which the outcast herd was next consigned, Mr. Jones had the greatest difficulty in getting shipment for his cattle, and succeeded at last only by dividing them between two of the

principal companies, which ventured together, after much hesitation, to run the risk of offending the Land League. The fact that Mr. Jones was widely known by articles in "Macmillan's Magazine," and elsewhere, as an authority on Irish Land questions, attracted special attention to his case; but the instrument used with such effect against him was all-powerful in three out of the four provinces of Ireland.

Lord Salisbury, in fact, did not go beyond the mark when in a memorable attack on the Government at Woodstock, on November 30, he said that there were two governments in Ireland. He was wrong, however, in speaking of the Land League government as "occult." Occult it was not, but on the contrary, open and ostentatious, its leaders triumphant in the possession of an instrument which needed for its successful application only a wide unanimity of popular feeling, and enabled them to strike at the landlords without overt acts of violence. The new tactics of the League towards agrarian outrage showed how fully they appreciated their advantage. Much indignation had been caused by the silence of their orators about the crimes by which Ireland was being disgraced. Mr. Labouchere, in reply to an invitation to attend a metropolitan meeting on the Irish Land question, had expressed a very general feeling when he wrote that the Land Leaguers need not expect any sympathy from English Radicals, so long as they gave the encouragement of silence to barbarous outrages on helpless men and women and dumb animals. But when Boycotting was invented and became popular, the Land Leaguers were emboldened to break a silence which they probably deemed prudent before. Whether or not they actually encouraged outrage—and silent acquiescence was virtually encouragement—there can be no doubt that the fear of personal violence procured them many adherents in the early stages of the movement. It was on this that their power at first rested. But now that the ban of any court of the League meant commercial ruin, their power stood on a different foundation. They could now afford not to wink at violence; it was in fact of the greatest importance for them to discourage violence, and preach with all their might a method by which, as they believed, they and their followers might effect their objects without falling within the grasp of the law. Instead of depending upon a vague fear of personal outrage to make their power respected, they had now "Boycotting"—"a splendid weapon," as one of their speakers said, "better than any eighty-ton gun ever manufactured." Accordingly, one of the first proceedings of the League, after this weapon was properly tempered and placed in position, was to issue an address disclaiming all connection with outrages, strongly deprecating them, and warning the people of Ireland that violence in any shape might defeat the ends of the League by giving an excuse for coercion. "At no period of the League's existence," the address ran, "was it so absolutely necessary for the tenant-farmers and labourers throughout the length and

breadth of the country to keep a firm grip upon and control over their passions and indignation at wrongs perpetrated and injustice threatened than at the present hour. The evil system which has so long been the curse of their families and existence is now gasping out its criminal life in face of the whole world—dethroned, discredited, and on the point of being destroyed by the stern but passionless action of a united and indignant people through the means of a bloodless revolution. To consummate its death should be the effort of every member of the League; to have the civilised world bend back its thumbs and give sanction to that decree against landlordism should be the aim and desire of every man upon whom it has inflicted injuries. How is this to be effected? By showing the world that the just use of organised strength is to remedy the present evils and not to avenge past wrongs; to convince our enemies that we have at last learnt how to evolve out of ourselves, build up, and control a power which can be directed by judgment and reason in the practical amelioration of our wrongs and grievances, instead of allowing it to fall a prey to that intoxication of purpose and unsystematic action which have hitherto purchased the defeat of the people's cause. To effect this object there should be no action but such as the League points out in its teachings and rules—a firm and determined attitude in making just demands; without violence, to enforce what intelligent, legal, and resolute combination can obtain; enunciation of just principles and motives where intimidation entails a conflict with law. Arguments and motives based upon right and the common good, when born of deep and honest conviction, will be found a more potent agency in furthering the cause of free land and helping the League in winning it for the people than means which jar upon the public and tend to alienate the sympathy of outside observers. Threatening letters are as unnecessary as they are stupidly criminal and unjustifiable; and we feel assured that no member of our organisation has resorted to a method of making just demands which invites the stigma of cowardice, and clumsily plays into the hands of the landlords."

The comparative immunity of Ireland from agrarian crime was no doubt due to the quickness with which the Irish peasantry recognised the efficacy of Boycotting. They were acting upon their sense of its value long before the leaders of the Land League explained how to use the instrument in a formal manifesto. The judges on circuit in Connaught and Munster spoke eloquently and expressively of the frightful state of those provinces, and of the difficulty of getting information on which to prosecute; but the amount of crime was conspicuously smaller than in previous agrarian agitations. The abominable maiming of cattle was probably more common, but acts of violence to persons were unmistakably less frequent. The great majority of the offences in both provinces consisted in the sending of threatening letters. This, and the digging of graves before the doors of unpopular individuals, are forms

of wild humour that seem particularly congenial to the Irish temperament. The state of things was bad enough, but many incidents occurred to show how rumour magnified the number and the manner of personal outrages. "Boycotting" was the fashionable crime in Ireland—a crime in the eyes of the nominal Government of Ireland, the highest of civic duties in the eyes of the government that aimed at taking its place.

The "invasion" of Mayo by the Orangemen taught the Land League another lesson, the importance of conciliating the farmers of the North, and bringing them, if possible, within the same organisation with the farmers of the South. An address "to the people of Ulster" was agreed upon at the weekly meeting of the Land League at its head-quarters in Dublin, on December 7. It made a strong appeal to the Ulstermen to put aside religious animosities, and unite with the farmers of the other provinces of Ireland in a resolute endeavour to secure to themselves the fruits of their toil. The address "branded" the charge of sectarianism brought against the League as "a foul and malicious falsehood," and went on to say:—"Every observer who has followed the course of the present agitation must be aware that Catholics, even the Catholic hierarchy and priesthood, are as much divided on the great question we advocate as if they were not members of the same religious community, a portion being anxious to retain a territorial caste, while others lean to the side of a peasant proprietary. As a matter of fact, the present agitation has resolved itself into a struggle pure and simple between the tenants and their friends on the one side and the landlords, Protestant and Catholic, and their supporters on the other. That the state of feeling here described exists throughout the three other provinces was clearly shown at the late general election, when, as in Roscommon, Mayo, and other places, Catholic gentlemen of the stanchest type and the oldest families were unseated solely on account of their not being sufficiently advanced on the question of land reform. If, then, the Catholics of the South gave such evidence of their willingness to ignore party ties, if they assert their right to differ and maintain their right to differ from the highest dignitaries of the Church on the great question of the day, are they to be met with denunciations and distrust, are they to be left to fight the battle alone and unaided by the men of the North? We think not. We believe they will be met half-way. We believe the men of Ulster will show the world that in the cause of justice, in the interest of the oppressed tenant-farmers, they can raise themselves above the level of sectarian prejudice or party warfare." This appeal, followed up by land meetings in various parts of Ulster, at which its arguments were reiterated and expanded by the practised orators of the League, was only partially successful. The Orange Institution set its face sternly against the Land League, collected subscriptions, and enrolled volunteers ready to march to the assistance of farmers in the South who had

been "Boycotted." The various Orange lodges throughout the country were instructed to report to head-quarters all agrarian outrages committed in their neighbourhood, and whenever a meeting was proposed to be held under the auspices of the Land League, to make application to the magistrates for its prohibition.

While the Land League was thus extending its area and perfecting its machinery, the Government continued to be fiercely assailed by the journals and the public leaders of the Opposition for not taking immediate steps to check disorder in Ireland with a high hand. The *Times* in vain repeated the caution which it had given to the Liberal Opposition against politicians out of office committing themselves to wholesale denunciation. All that had been said a year before about want of patriotism in embarrassing the Government had been forgotten. The recognised leaders of the Conservative party vied with such extreme free-lances as Lord R. Churchill and Sir H. D. Wolff in the freedom of their invective. Sir S. Northcote, indeed, in a speech at the Colston celebration at Bristol, spoke of the necessity of prudence and moderation, if the defeated party at the last election was to regain its lost position, and paid a high compliment to the tactics by which Mr. Disraeli had reunited his party, when it was in a much more hopeless state of disorganisation. But he hardly, as the *Times* reminded him, set a good example of his precept when he derided "the three F's"—Fixity of tenure, Fair rent, and Free sale—as being utterly impracticable, and even immoral, as a basis of land reform. This, it may be remembered, was Mr. Parnell's "low-water mark" of the reforming spirit. The three F's were long advocated by Mr. Isaac Butt, and they received the support of a large body of the Roman Catholic priesthood of Ireland, as a basis for an equitable solution of the Irish problem. But Sir S. Northcote ridiculed the three F's as being equivalent to Fraud, Force, and Folly; a rival alliteration which was caught up and repeated on many a Conservative platform. Lord Salisbury neither professed nor practised moderation of speech. "We live in times," he said, "which do not admit of political inaction and hardly of political truce." He spoke as if there were no Irish difficulty that had not been created by the cowardice of the Government in evading the elementary duty of preserving order. He even went so far as to say that certain members of the Cabinet—the members for Birmingham—wished for the increased prevalence of outrage in Ireland, because it would furnish the argument that would best serve to establish their theories. The *Times* warned Lord Salisbury not to forget that it was one of the possibilities of next year that the Conservative party might again be in office, and that no party could come into power without making an attempt to deal thoroughly with the question of land reform in Ireland. Why then should the Conservative leaders be in such haste to preclude themselves from the consistent adoption of any reasonable solution?

If anything could have taught the Conservative leaders caution,

and diverted them from the means they were adopting of trying to inspirit their minority, it would have been the answer given by facts to their taunts about the failure of the Naval Demonstration. While the cession of Dulcigno still hung fire, Lord Salisbury said that if six washing-tubs, with the flags of the different nations upon them had been sent to the Adriatic, they would have produced as much effect; and only a few days before the entry of the Montenegrins was announced, Sir S. Northcote spoke of one thing as being perfectly clear—that the Demonstration had utterly and completely failed, and that the Sultan was only playing at bob-cherry with the disputed territory. These unwary predictions and assertions, the ridicule of the European Concert as a farce, and the eagerness of the Opposition leaders to taunt the Government with failure before their measures had been put to the test, furnished Lord Granville with convenient openings for retort in a speech which he made at Hanley, on November 27, the day after Dulcigno was occupied by the Montenegrins. Lord Granville maintained that the European Concert was still a reality, and still bent upon the complete execution of the Treaty of Berlin, and he accounted for the slowness of its movements, and at the same time illustrated its force and sureness, by a happy image. When he was in the Staffordshire Yeomanry, he said, he had been taught that the proper pace at which to charge was that of the slowest horse under the heaviest farmer in the troop, and that then the charge, though it might not be swift, was irresistible. Referring to Lord Salisbury's criticism of the efforts of the Government to secure the fulfilment of the Berlin Treaty, he said:—"I really should like to know what any of you would think of a mercantile man who sought to get his bill dishonoured, because it had passed into the hands of a rival in trade who had endorsed it." To this last taunt, Lord Salisbury retorted, with ingenious wit, that "it occasionally happened that when a note or bill fell into thoughtless hands, they altered the figure which it contained, and, when that happened, the person who originally drew or accepted the note was very apt to object to pay it." This was in allusion to the fact that Dulcigno was not named in the Treaty of Berlin as a place that was to belong to Montenegro, a fact with which Sir Charles Dilke dealt in addressing his constituents at Chelsea, on December 13. Dulcigno was not mentioned, but another piece of territory was, and the Powers were agreed that Dulcigno should stand as an equivalent. The *Standard* joined with the *Times* in rebuking Lord Salisbury for carping at the cession of Dulcigno on the ground that it was not in the bond of the Berlin Treaty.

In contending that the Naval Demonstration had failed, Sir S. Northcote—in this respect cautious—had said that even if Dulcigno were surrendered, the question of the Greek frontier still remained behind. He somewhat incautiously added—asking his audience to mark his words—that a Demonstration would never be

made in support of the Greek claims. Lord Granville, however, and Sir C. Dilke seemed to hint that the Concert might reasonably be expected to hold together for this purpose also. A largely attended meeting, presided over by the Earl of Rosebery, was held in Willis's Rooms, early in December, to urge upon the Government the duty of not remitting their exertions in favour of Greece.

The detachment of a section of the Liberal majority, upon the Irish Disturbance Bill, was probably part of the reason why the Opposition adopted so uncompromising a tone in reference to the Irish Land question. It was certainly the main ground on which some members of the party reckoned confidently on disruption within the Ministerial ranks, and a dissolution or a change of Government before a year had passed. The precise scope of the Government proposals was, of course, kept a profound secret throughout the oratorical campaign of the recess. Mr. Bright and Mr. Chamberlain, in addressing their constituents at Birmingham, enlarged upon the necessity of reforming the land system of Ireland; and Mr. Bright, in particular, in an elaborate review of the history of land tenure in Ireland, insisted that some remedy must be devised, and that force was no remedy. Mr. Bright professed to speak for himself, with as much freedom as if he were not a member of the Government; but it was evident that as he continued a member of the Cabinet, after their policy had been agreed upon, the forthcoming measures, whatever they might be, were not irreconcilable with his views. Mr. Childers was present at Sir C. Dilke's meeting with his constituents, but he would say nothing more definite than that the proposals of the Government would be found to be in harmony with the wishes of the Liberal party throughout the country. What those wishes were, as we have already noted, were very plainly declared. Mr. Bright's opinion, that force was no remedy, was again and again re-echoed in the meetings of Liberal members with their constituents. "You cannot imprison a feeling," Mr. Grant Duff happily put it at Peterhead; and it was apparent that the main factor with which the Government had to reckon in the restoration of order was the feeling of the vast majority of the tenant-farmers of Ireland.

The prosecution of the Land Leaguers was fixed for December 28; an application for postponement on the part of the traversers having been refused. Up to the last, it was doubted whether a jury could be found to act. The jurymen were threatened by anticipation with "Boycotting," if a conviction should be recorded against Mr. Parnell—*notre roi*, as he was often styled in threatening letters and anonymous proclamations—and a panic prevailed among the unfortunate men in Dublin liable to be called upon to serve. It was said that they would incur any penalty of fine or imprisonment rather than face the dangerous responsibility. The panel was reduced from forty-eight to twenty four, by striking off on each side in the Crown Office, and only eighteen were in attendance on

the opening of the trial. Of these, three were excused on the ground of age and infirmity; one was exempted as a servant of the Crown; and two were challenged by the counsel for the defence. Thus the exact number required was left, and the trial proceeded. The last few days of the year were occupied with the Attorney-General's statement of the case for the Crown.

FOREIGN HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

FRANCE AND ITALY.

I. FRANCE.

The De Freycinet Ministry—The Unauthorised Orders—The General Amnesty—
The fall of M. de Freycinet—The Execution of the Decrees—The Ferry
Cabinet—Foreign Affairs—The Anglo-French Treaty of Commerce.

THE student of modern French politics cannot fail to be struck with the fact that the leading men of all parties—with one notable exception—are strangely wanting in that force of character and moral power, which rarely accompanies, it is true, the most brilliant intellectual gifts, which is not always an indication of any great elevation of nature, but which is absolutely necessary to inspire the confidence or obtain the obedience of other men. M. Gambetta is eloquent, but his eloquence is not the secret of his strength; his eloquence is but a powerful tool which renders him good service in the work on which he has been for the last ten years engaged. He has, indeed, had not only his party, but also his country, to educate, and the difficulties of the parliamentary situation at the beginning of 1880 arose chiefly from the fact that the country as a whole had been learning its lessons rather quicker than its representatives, either in the Senate or in the Chamber.

The Waddington Cabinet of January 1879, which was composed almost entirely of members of the Left Centre, was not, even at the very moment of its formation, abreast of public opinion in the country. For a while it commanded, however, the support of a parliamentary majority expectant of the reforms to which it had pledged itself, but as the months passed without any attempt being made on the part of Government to fulfil its undertakings, the Republican Left was encouraged by the more pronounced attitude of the constituencies to insist that the reforms which had been promised by M. Waddington and his colleagues should be carried out, and carried out not only in the letter but in the spirit.

Unfortunately, whilst the Republican Left had advanced a step, the Government had remained stationary, and was so far from being prepared to redeem the pledges which it had given that the Minister of Justice, M. Le Royer, retired sooner than touch the magistracy, and, when M. Waddington's attention was persistently called to the necessity of making provisions in the Foreign Office for something like honest service of the existing institutions, he also threw up his portfolio.

M. de Freycinet, who succeeded M. Waddington as Premier on December 26, 1879, modified the Cabinet by taking in several members of the Republican Left—men who were ready to answer to the special demands of the moment, but who were hardly more likely than himself to be of good counsel should any unforeseen emergency arise to tax their powers of discernment and foresight. The Extreme Left remained, of course, unsatisfied, and held themselves ready, by a policy of coalition with the Right, to vex and embarrass the Government whenever this could be done with safety to themselves, and they showed their temper as soon as the session opened by abstaining or voting against the re-election of Gambetta as President of the Chamber (by 259 out of 308 votes) on January 13, 1880. Three days later (January 16) M. de Freycinet made his public statement of the Ministerial programme. He declared that the Senate should be pressed to vote the laws on public instruction which had been agreed to by the Chamber in the previous July; that the magistracy should be reorganised; that the administration should be reformed; that Bills should be introduced regulating the right of association, the liberty of the press, and other minor matters which urgently demanded legislation. There was, indeed, very little difference between the declaration of M. de Freycinet and that which had been made by M. Dufaure on January 10, 1879—the reform of the magistracy, of the public services, and of public instruction formed the main points of both, and critics of all shades of opinion were naturally inclined to protest:—

Ce n'est pas la peine, assurément,
De changer de gouvernement.

But the pledges given by M. Dufaure had not been kept, whereas it was now understood that no trifling would be allowed. Considerable prefectorial changes were immediately gazetted (January 14), accompanied by an even longer list of those effected in the magistracy; the Judges of course could not be touched, but men holding subordinate posts, and who had shown marked hostility to the Republic in the discharge of their duties, were pensioned off or dismissed the service in large numbers. Bills embodying all the reforms which had been declared urgent were also introduced without loss of time, and as the only questions on which the great body of the Left—made up of the pure Left and the Republican union—were seriously at variance seemed to be questions of degree rather than of principle, an attempt was made to bring

about the fusion of these two groups so as to afford the Cabinet the support of a certain majority. This attempt, however, fell through, and the Cabinet remained exposed not only to the surprises which might be prepared for them by the unnatural alliance of the Right with the Extreme Left, but also to the accidents which might arise from any division taking place between the two principal groups of their party. Occasionally, too, the Left Centre—like Dufaure's group in the Senate—would further complicate matters by voting with the Conservatives, and it was by a combination of this nature that M. Léon Say, the ex-Minister of Finance—whose conduct in the matter of "conversion" was still regarded by many with suspicion—obtained the Presidentship of the Finance Committee of the Upper House on January 29.

His successor, M. Magnin, had been instantly interrogated (January 18) as to the intentions of the Government in respect of the same vexed question of the conversion of the Five per Cents.; he at once declared that no explanation or hint would be given on the subject either then or at any future time, and the order of the day which he demanded was promptly voted by a majority of nearly a hundred. Two days later his colleagues, M. Cazot and M. Ferry, brought in their respective Bills for the reform of the magistracy and for that of primary education. On the same day the House agreed to the Bill dealing with girls' secondary education; and on the 23rd the Senate began the discussion of the proposed reconstitution of the Council of Superior Education, in the course of which the Right was enabled to carry an amendment against the Government by the aid of their friends in the Left Centre.

In spite of the same combination the Cabinet succeeded in carrying on February 5 the election of Professor Broca to the life senatorship vacant by the death of M. de Montalivet, an election which was regarded as important because it secured a vote in favour of the Bill on Higher Education which would shortly come before the Senate, and some hopes began to be entertained that the celebrated Clause 7, embodying the proposal to take away the right of teaching from all those who belonged to unauthorised congregations, would be accepted as a compromise. The agitation which for many months past had been actively carried on throughout the country against this clause, if it showed that a large section of the community were violently opposed to it, had also brought to light the indisputable fact that there was a deep and widespread feeling in its favour. On this point, at least, the majority of the Chamber was to the full as advanced as the constituencies, but the Senate was to a great extent without the circle of the influences which largely affected the deputies of the Lower House. On February 24, the day on which M. Lemoine was elected Senator, the Senate proceeded to discuss the Bill. Clauses 1 to 6 were passed without difficulty, and on March 4 M. Bérenger opened the debate on Clause 7 with an impassioned pleading which he ended with the words: "I stand here, not as the advocate of the Jesuits, but as

the defender of the cause of freedom." M. Bérenger divided the honours of the first day with M. Buffet, who devoted himself to the task of producing a very skilful rhetorical confusion between what was meant by the words Clericalism and Catholicism; but on the 5th M. Bertauld intervened in reply with great effect from a strictly legal point of view; and after a stormy debate—lasting into the following week—at the close of which M. Ferry himself spoke at great length on the political aspect of the question, the division was taken and the clause rejected by 148 to 129. The votes of the Right had been strengthened by the adhesion of Jules Simon, of Dufaure and Laboulaye, whose example was followed by twenty-six moderate Republicans, and the honourable names of Littré and Fourichon were to be counted amongst the seven intentional abstentions. There was not the slightest chance that the Senate would reverse this decision at a later stage of the Bill, and all the world awaited with the greatest anxiety the further action of the Cabinet.

The composition of the majority by which the clause had been defeated in the Senate furnished the means of analysing the exact nature and extent of the opposition in the country. It consisted, as has been seen, of the Right—that is to say, of the three dynastic groups, Legitimists, Orleanists, and Bonapartists, strengthened by a handful of Conservatives or moderate Republicans—and one or two Liberal doctrinaires, who, charmed by M. Bérenger's appeal to the name of liberty, gave occasion to their friends to repeat Madame Roland's protest, "Ah! Liberté, Liberté, comme on t'a jouée!" It was now perfectly clear to those in power that the class which protested against Clause 7 had comparatively small support in the country, and that support almost wholly confined to the enemies of the existing institutions, whilst, on the other hand, it became daily more evident that the whole of the working and thriving population, the thews and sinews of commercial France, the class which formed the foundations of the modern power, would not be satisfied unless measures were at once taken to regulate the whole question.

The communications received from heads of electoral committees, who have now begun to exercise great influence in political life, made it clear that Ministers were face to face with a political necessity which no longer left room for the discussion of the question on the grounds of theoretical desirability, and it may be as well here briefly to mention the principal causes which had produced this state of opinion. The French Republican majority argue that the members of the religious orders have long enjoyed in France all the privileges of citizens, together with complete exemption from their responsibilities. The people see with anger that civilians are torn from their homes and from the steady exercise of their peaceful industries to perform their term of forced military service, whilst thousands of able-bodied men are exempted without question. The whole of France is covered with a network of

unauthorised orders, many of which openly subsist by begging (even in departments in which lay mendicity is punished by imprisonment), whilst others turn to account the labour of the aged poor or of the young children whom they are supposed to maintain as a work of charity. All the children who in England find their place either in reformatories, industrial schools, or workhouses, subject to State inspection, are in France under the management of these unauthorised and irresponsible communities, whose revenues are swelled by their unpaid labour. The number and the great scale of these establishments seriously interfere with the normal conditions of labour—needlewomen, for instance, have to compete with the nuns, who not only obtain the gratuitous services of the orphans confided to them by the State, but are further advantaged by the labour which they strictly exact of the little ones whose parents pay for their maintenance in the belief that their children are obtaining a useful education. Even the attempt to make the authorised orders contribute something of the wealth which they were known to possess fell through in consequence of the partisanship of the Bench, and the income-tax voted by the Versailles Assembly on their revenues could not be obtained by the Treasury. The same Judges who have been recently ruling the existence of proprietary interests vested in these corporations, and completely ignoring the mortmain provisions of the Code, defeated the proposed imposition of the income-tax by declaring that where there were vows of poverty there could be no taxable estate, or where there were no dividends there could be no income. These are the grounds on which the opinion held by the great majority of the French electorate had been formed, and which led them to insist on the active intervention of the Government.

It would have been more convenient to Ministers to have dealt in the first place with the reform of the magistracy, and to have put off dealing with the unauthorised associations until they had created a judicial body, ready to administer the existing laws in the spirit of existing institutions, in the place of men who openly aided and abetted the active political hostility displayed by the ecclesiastical corporations. For it must not be forgotten that the political attitude assumed by the religious orders—as has been recently acknowledged by the Bishop of Amiens in his pamphlet on “*La Crise Religieuse*”—was aggressive; it furnished a constant incitement to civil war, and demanded measures of repression at the hands of those to whom the defence of the Republic had been intrusted. The action of the Jesuits appeared the most dangerous, and Clause 7 was therefore brought forward as a minimum, and its rejection by the Senate deprived the Government of the time which they wished to gain and brought matters to a crisis.

Under this pressure, the Cabinet determined to apply the laws, and when the second deliberation of the Senate on the Bill took place (March 15) M. de Freycinet made a declaration to that effect. On March 23 decisions were come to as to the mode of deal-

ing with the Jesuits and other unauthorised congregations. It was agreed to despatch M. Desprez to Rome to negotiate directly with the Pope; and on the 30th the *Journal Officiel* published the expected Decrees, the first of which granted the Jesuits three months' grace in which to break up all their establishments in France, whilst by the second all unauthorised congregations were summoned, within the same space of time, to apply for authorisation. To this end it was necessary that they should declare the names and numbers of their members, the amount of their property, of their revenues, and of their expenses; it was also necessary that they should give in a copy of their rules and regulations approved by the Bishops of the dioceses in which any branches of the association were maintained, and declare themselves subject to their authority in all spiritual things.

Before the week was out (April 4) it was decided by the congregations that they would neither apply for authorisation nor communicate the rules and regulations by which their associations were bound; a violent agitation against the Decrees began; and it was foreseen that the three months which had to elapse before their execution would be employed in contriving every possible means of resistance. Attempts were at once made to obtain a manifestation of adverse opinion from the *conseils généraux*, then sitting, and about twelve or fifteen were "saisis de vœux contre les décrets," but in each case the prefects refused to admit the legality of the vote, meeting it by the previous question; and when, on May 4, the hostile interpellation of M. Lamy, a strongly Catholic member of the Left Centre, gave the Chamber an opportunity of distinctly pronouncing its judgment on the question, the order of the day demanded by M. de Freycinet was promptly carried by a majority of 362 to 137.

In the Senate, feeling of course pronounced itself with almost equal strength in the contrary direction. In the course of the same month M. Léon Say—who had left Paris at the end of April, having accepted the post of Ambassador to London in the hope of negotiating a fresh commercial treaty with England—came forward as a candidate for the Presidentship of the Upper House, then vacant by the resignation of M. Martel. He stood as the avowed adversary of Clause 7, as well as all similar legislation, and to this fact he owed his success, for on May 25 he was elected in spite of the efforts made by the Government to secure the return of M. Le Royer.

It was now more than ever certain that every measure of reform large enough to satisfy the demands of the vast majority in the country, and to obtain the support of the Chamber of Deputies, would be steadily obstructed by the Senate, and in the teeth of this difficulty the Government was forced to go on with its work. The long-promised Bill regulating the right of public meeting had been passed by the Chamber on the 15th. On the 30th M. Cazot, Minister of Justice, introduced the Bill embodying the changes

proposed in the magistrature. The subject of the general amnesty was also forcibly pressed on the attention of the Cabinet, for it was understood that M. Ballue—who had been returned at Lyons (June 6) by 8,290 votes as against 5,947 cast for Blanqui—was pledged to raise the question. M. Constans, therefore, who had succeeded M. Lepère (May 15) as Minister of the Interior, induced his colleagues to reopen the subject at once, and in order to avoid as far as possible the dangers of a conflict with the Senate, it was arranged by M. de Freycinet (on the suggestion of M. Gambetta) that a meeting of moderate Republicans of both Houses should be held at the Foreign Office on the 17th to discuss the Bill proposed by Government. It was then ascertained that the support of nearly the whole of the pure Left, both in the Senate and in the Chamber, could be counted on, but the Senators of the Left Centre reserved their decision, and consequently the prospect in the Senate was by no means clear. In the Lower House the Bill passed on June 21, after a debate in which M. Gambetta spoke with great effect, by 333 to 140. In the Senate, after an exciting discussion, the Government was obliged to accept the amendment of M. Labiche—supported by M. Waddington and thirty-three moderate Republicans—which gave them discretionary powers during a limited time, but it was thrown out on a division by 145 to 133. A second attempt was then made to find a compromise by M. Bozerian, who proposed to specially exempt from pardon all offenders who had been proved guilty either of arson or of murder. This amendment rallied a small number of moderate Republicans in its favour, and with their help, the Left having unwittingly given in their adhesion, it was carried by 143 to 138, the narrow majority of five being obtained by the votes of the ministers themselves who had previously supported the proposal of M. Labiche.

The 5th of July was a Saturday; on the following Monday M. Cazot presented the Bill as amended to the Chamber; on the 7th the Committee reported; on the following day it returned to the Upper House; and on the 9th it was voted (176 to 98), the Senate accepting the new clause as modified by the Chamber, and excluding only those condemned “*contradictoirement*”—that is, all condemned, after being heard, for assassinations or incendiarism, but excepting those judged by default or not sentenced to death or hard labour, and those so sentenced whose sentences had been commuted. The Decree, dated July 10, appeared in the *Journal Officiel* of the 11th, and remitted the sentences of “all persons who had been condemned for having shared in the insurrections of 1870–71.”

On the 18th of the same month the Chambers adjourned; the Amnesty Bill was the only measure of importance which they had passed since January, and although the much-needed Bill on the reform of the magistracy had been postponed—together with M. Naquet's divorce Bill and that on the military service of seminarists

—under pressure of more urgent business, the Budget had not yet passed the Lower House, whilst the tariff, the Merchant Shipping Bill, and M. Dufaure's Bill on public meetings, had stuck in the Senate. But, although very little had been done, the lines of the Government policy had been plainly laid down, and their future course as regarded the great issues which were before the country had been determined. To the establishment of a system of secular education in all grades; to the dissolution of the unauthorised congregations; and to such a measure of reform of the judicial body as would bring it into harmony with existing institutions, they were in honour pledged; and it was felt that the results of the departmental elections to the Councils General, which were about to begin, would show beyond question whether the resolutions taken by the Government on all these points were in just accordance with the intent of the people whom they had been called to govern.

The first returns of these elections on August 3 were decisive; in eleven out of the thirty departments previously held by their opponents, the Republicans had obtained a majority; and on the 4th the final test showed that whereas the outgoing numbers had been pretty evenly balanced—Republicans, 719, to Reactionaries, of various shades, 712—the incoming members would be, Republicans, 927, to Reactionaries, 374. At this moment second ballots had to be taken in several places, which resulted in a further net gain to the Republicans, and brought up their numbers to 1,018, as compared with the total of 410 reached by their opponents. Including the unrenewed half of the members, who, elected in 1877, would not go out until 1883, the Councils General, therefore, now contain over 1,800 Republicans, holding sixty-five out of the eighty-five departments of France and Algeria. Bonapartism suffered severely in the Pas de Calais, Gironde, Gers, Dordogne, and Charente Inférieure; five seats also were won by the Republicans in Corsica, where, as in La Manche, the final result was a tie, each party securing half the seats on the Council. Nor were the Imperialists compensated for the losses which they sustained on their own ground by any accession of strength to the ranks of that party of disorder with whom they had persistently allied themselves since May 1879, in the hope of profiting by the future confusion of France. The Irreconcilables won Bourges, but at Lille, Toulouse, Lyons, and Besançon, where their power had seemed most considerable, they were most signally defeated.

It was naturally expected that the Cabinet, now that the feeling of the country was placed beyond a doubt, would proceed without hesitation on its course, but, as the summer drew to a close, rumours were floating to the effect that the Decrees would not be executed. Great uneasiness was felt, for M. Ferry's language on the subject was guarded, and M. Constans, in speaking at Toulouse (August 19) deprecated anything like impatience; no date, he said, had been fixed for the application of the laws in the second

instance, and impatience might compromise the success of the Government policy. At the moment that the Decrees were signed, Camille Pelletan had rather inelegantly described M. de Freycinet as "scratching his head and putting them — in his pocket." The Premier was now represented as again "scratching his head" with the intention of keeping them there. For a moment public attention was diverted from domestic affairs in the stir occasioned by M. Gambetta's brilliant speech at Cherbourg, whither he had gone on a visit of ceremony with the President of the Republic. The irritability of the German press detected a menace in language which revealed the consciousness that an era of recovered strength and independence had once more dawned for France. M. de Freycinet, therefore, to reassure Berlin thought fit a few days later at Montauban to make express declarations of peace and goodwill. Such effect, however, as this part of his speech may have had on the external relations of the country was certainly lost in the sensation caused at home by his announcement that, with the exception of the expulsion of the Jesuits, the March Decrees would be a dead letter; the Government, he said, would bring in a Bill at the commencement of the session intended to govern all lay and religious associations. This was M. Dufaure's old policy, but as M. Dufaure's own organ, *Le Parlement*, at once pointed out, it was no longer possible to hark back to a course which might once have been easy, after having yielded to the popular movement and partly executed the Decrees which that movement had imposed.

Speculation was rife as to what had induced this sudden change of front; the difference between the language held at Toulouse by M. Constans and that of the Prime Minister at Montauban was examined, and it was surmised that M. de Freycinet, inspired by the desire to show that he could take a line of his own, and find the clue which should master the situation unaided, had advanced upon the new path alone. It was at least clear that the Minister of the Interior, M. Constans, did not share his confidence, and he was placed by the proceedings of the Prime Minister in a peculiarly awkward position, as he had steadily continued to declare that the Decrees would be enforced under any circumstances. Immediately after M. de Freycinet's return to Paris, three successive Cabinet Councils were held—September 16, 17 and 18—M. Grévy coming up from Mont-sous Vaudrey to preside. At the second, it was agreed to await the decisions of the Tribunal des Conflits before coming to a positive determination as to the execution of the March Decrees. There were, however, dissentients from this resolution. Early on the following morning M. Constans sent in his resignation, and a note, stating that it was caused by his desire to see the Decrees vigorously enforced, was forwarded to the newspapers. Before the Cabinet met in the course of the same day, M. Cazot, the Minister of Justice, had also resigned; and General Farre, on learning this, declared that he should retire with his colleagues. M. de Freycinet then immediately told M. Grévy that the whole

Cabinet must resign, but M. Ferry made great efforts to prevent the impending rupture, and, after further explanations had been obtained from M. Constans, M. de Freycinet declared himself ready to make certain concessions which would enable M. Constans to proceed without delay against various communities which had been specially brought under his notice, and in respect of which he had already issued orders which he could not decently retract. At the same time M. de Freycinet acknowledged that he had—as it would seem without the cognisance of his own colleagues—informed the Vatican “that no steps would be taken till after the Bill on associations had been brought in”; and as soon as a telegram was issued from the Ministry of the Interior, embodying the statement that M. Constans was free to decide on the immediate steps to be taken, and to continue the course of action which he had already commenced, M. de Freycinet vigorously protested, and insisted that he should be allowed to insert a categorical denial in the *Journal Officiel*. To this M. Constans and M. Cazot very naturally objected, and M. Grévy himself remonstrated with M. de Freycinet, but in vain, for the private pledges which the President of the Council had given seem to have forced him at this point to choose between open conflict with his colleagues and instant resignation. Unsupported, except by M. Varroy and Admiral Jauréguiberry, in the contest which he had provoked, M. de Freycinet was obliged to retire; and M. Ferry, entrusted by M. Grévy with the task of reconstituting the Cabinet, replaced M. de Freycinet at the Foreign Office by M. Barthélemy St.-Hilaire; Admiral Jauréguiberry by Admiral Cloué; and M. Varroy by his Under-Secretary, M. Sadi Carnot. All the other ministers remained in the posts which they had previously occupied.

Further light was immediately thrown on the situation which had been created by M. de Freycinet's independent action through the publication of a circular addressed by M. Constans to the superiors of the non-authorised congregations, which made its appearance in the *Journal Officiel* of September 19. This circular acknowledged the receipt of a declaration, dated August 31, which had been forwarded to Government by those orders, and in which, whilst persisting in their determination not to apply for authorisation, they affirmed their respect for the existing institutions of the country, and their intention no longer to identify themselves with political passions and parties. Of these good resolutions M. Constans took note, but, he added, “I can only point out that the second of the Decrees of March 29 was specially intended to put an end to the state of sufferance of which you solicit the continuance, and to substitute for it a legal state of things.” Almost at the very moment that this circular was published, the origin of the declaration to which it referred was laid bare, for in the columns of a provincial Legitimist newspaper there appeared the text of a confidential communication addressed by the Archbishops of Rouen and Paris on August 16 to the French Bishops. They were

informed that a "high authority" authorised the communities "to sign and present to the Government the declaration of which a draft was subjoined"; that the French Government was privy to the substance of its contents; and that "latterly it had let it be seen that such a declaration would give adequate satisfaction." The Archbishops further directed the Bishops to urge the superiors to sign at once, and concluded by strongly recommending the utmost secrecy and despatch—"there were strong reasons for haste," but above all "secrecy"—for nothing must be suffered to leak into the press.

By the publication of this document the puzzle of M. de Freycinet's *reculade* was cleared up; the loud outcries of the Clerical and Legitimist party, coupled with the fears of those who believed that the use of force in such a matter would create evils more embarrassing in the future than those which it sought to destroy, had set him to seek a means of reconciliation; but he forgot that schemes, however laudable, if undertaken without the sanction and co-operation of his colleagues, lacked the constitutional guarantees which accompany the decisions of a united Cabinet, and as a statesman he was at fault, for he overlooked the fact that the body of public opinion already formed in favour of the March Decrees would not safely permit of any dallying with their execution.

The Cabinet, now reconstituted, after having re-examined the situation, determined (October 13) that the non-authorised congregations should be proceeded against without delay. On the 17th, the Jesuits having been already dispersed, the application of the second Decree was commenced, and the establishments of the Carmelites and Barnabites were broken up throughout the whole of France. But little resistance was encountered, as it had been supposed that the Capucins and Dominicans would have been first closed—otherwise, as the superiors in many cases informed the Commissary of Police, preparations would have been made for defence. During the following days, however, the work went on, at least in the north, in comparative quiet; but at Lyons, and, further south, at Nîmes, Marseilles, and Toulouse, the greatest caution could not prevent disturbances amongst populations always readily excited and inflamed. At Toulouse (November 3) the Cardinal Archbishop shut himself up with the Fathers of the Sacred Heart, and on being summoned to leave declared that he was "at home." "Then," said the Commissary, turning to an agent, "send me in a couple of gendarmes." "What!" cried the Cardinal, "will you order them to lay hands on me?" "Certainly," replied the Commissary; and before this "certainly" the Cardinal and his friends instantly decamped. In their passage through the streets they were accompanied by a crowd of women and youths. Some of the latter, armed with life-preservers and revolvers, began rioting; they were arrested before any harm was done, and it is a significant fact that all these eager partisans of the communities were lads "between eighteen and twenty. Eye-witnesses also describe the

crowd at Lyons to have been similarly composed, but at Lyons, unfortunately, innocent blood was shed before the police could disarm a band of *jeunes gens*. One of their number, a Vicomte de Lubac, pupil of the Jesuits of Mongé, and son of an ex-sous-prefect of May 16, attacked a young tradesman named Claudius Gros, who is said to have cried "Vivent les Décrets!" with his swordstick. Gros was unarmed, and De Lubac, aided by his companions, ran him through the body; his victim died a few hours later, having recovered consciousness only to identify his murderer. Warned by this incident, and informed that about a thousand persons had collected in the fortified monastery of the Prémontrés, near Tarascon, the prefect of the Bouches de Rhône (November 5) ordered up a sufficient force to draw a cordon round the vast walls and prevent all access. Before many hours were over weariness laid hold of the spirits of the besieged, the lively piano of the first day was silenced, and at early dawn the soldiers were amused by the sally forth of a troop of three hundred young women and girls, which bore witness to the success of tactics which had a decidedly comic aspect; the first instalment was speedily followed by others, until the monks were left undefended, and could therefore be expelled on the morning of the fourth day (November 8) without difficulty.

As day by day fuller news was received, and the names of those arrested were made public, it became the more evident that the matter had, in truth, a chiefly political significance. All those who either came forward publicly to uphold the dissolved orders, or identified themselves with acts of riot and violence, were persons already known for their hostility to the Republic. The attitude of the magistracy in meeting the legal actions taken by the congregations was also stamped by the same spirit of determined political partisanship which had made them obnoxious to the Republicans, and the Extreme Left, already irritated by the delays and uncertainties which had ended in the retirement of M. de Freycinet, began to call loudly on M. Gambetta to come forward and take the reins of power, without, it is true, examining too closely whether it was within his competence to satisfy their demands. M. Clémenceau was one of the most pertinacious, and in a violent speech made at Marseilles he declared, "We do not ask M. Gambetta to assume power. He has it. What we ask is that he should exercise it in broad daylight, and under the control of public opinion." This speech, which attracted much attention, was delivered on October 28; and when the meeting of the two Houses took place (November 9) it found the Extreme Left all but ready for war. In making the Ministerial declaration, M. Ferry first referred to the execution of the Decrees. "Animated," he said, "by passions rather political than religious, and with the significant co-operation of parties which the country has disowned, a certain number of irregularly established congregations had organised with much noise a rebellion against the law. It is neces-

sary to put an end by measures universally applied to a situation dangerous to the public peace. Two hundred and sixty-one non-authorised establishments have been dispersed, and this measure has been extended to all congregations of men not in possession of a legal title. . . . We have no intention of applying it to congregations of women, whose situation we propose to regularise by other means." In the first rank of the Bills to be voted by both Houses during the coming session, M. Ferry placed those concerning education, including that on letters of obedience and on the secondary education of girls—then before the Senate—as well as those making primary education secular, compulsory, and free, and a new Bill intended to secure sufficient guarantees of the solid nature of the instruction given in the free secondary schools, and to provide for thorough Government inspection of the same. "Side by side with the Bills on education," added M. Ferry, "the last session has bequeathed to us a Bill on the magistracy; an agreement had been come to on all the chief points between the Cabinet which we replace and the Committee appointed to examine it. We intend to abide by that agreement." M. Ferry also specified the Bill on the right of public meeting and that on the press as measures to be immediately carried through, together with others concerning public works and regulating promotions in the army and navy. "Can we also," he added, "put upon our list a general Bill on associations? We believe that neither the time remaining to us nor the state of feeling will allow the solution of so complex a problem to be pursued in the two Houses at the present moment with any prospect of success."

M. Ferry sat down amidst applause, but when he demanded a few moments later priority on the order of the day for the laws on public instruction, on the magistracy, and on the press, the ill-humour of the Extreme Left at once manifested itself. M. Ballue became its spokesman, and insisted on the Bill on the magistracy being taken first; to this M. Ferry replied, "The Government insists on priority for the laws relative to education"; but the general irritation provoked by the attitude of the Bench was so great that on this motion being put it was defeated by 200 to 166. M. Ferry thereupon declared that the Cabinet must retire; vigorous efforts were, however, made by the President of the Republic and by M. Gambetta to induce him to reconsider a decision which really gave undue importance to the vote in question. It was, therefore, agreed that a distinct vote of confidence should be challenged. This was done, and the vote was carried in the Chamber, now fully alive to the consequences of its decision, in spite of M. Clémenceau's adjurations, by 297 to 131. In the Senate, the debate on M. Buffet's interpellation as to the "September crisis" ended in a similar result, and both Houses now settled down to work.

The Chamber at once took up the Magistracy Bill, the whole point of which lay in the 8th article, by which the irremovability

of the Judges was suspended for a year. The large majority obtained on this point could only be explained by the attitude of certain of the courts of law which had, ever since the foundation of the Republic, given incessant proofs of hostile partisanship; and the Bill was deprived of all but political colour by the rejection of the clause proposing the suppression, on economical grounds, of all courts hearing only a very small proportion of cases annually. This last clause was re-established in the counter-project prepared by the Committee of the Senate, of which M. Jules Simon was president, and the Committee also reversed the decision of the Chamber as to the irremovability of Judges, but the Bill has not yet been discussed in the Upper House, and a conflict may perhaps be avoided by the acceptance, or partial acceptance, of a second counter-project which has been elaborated by the Senatorial Left with that view. After the Bill on the magistracy the Chamber next discussed and voted (December 24) that dealing with primary education, and making it both secular and compulsory. The Bill on the secondary education of girls, which was passed by the Senate on December 10, provides for the establishment of secondary day schools by the co-operation of the State and the municipalities, but leaves to the municipalities the option of determining whether or no the day school shall be supplemented by a boarding-house. The education given in these schools, as in those of an elementary character, is to be secular only, and this provision was passed in spite of a violent opposition in the Senate, headed by the Duke de Broglie, who, finding it impossible to carry his own point, proposed to strike out "moral" instruction altogether from the course of study laid down, on the ground that such teaching, unless given under clerical direction, would be "atheistic." The Duke introduced a variety of not very relevant personalities into the debate, challenging the private opinions of the Prime Minister, and trying to make capital out of the fact that he was a Freemason; under these circumstances it must be reckoned as important that his motion was defeated by a very large majority—166 to 121.

The collision between the two Houses on the Budget, which had at one time seemed inevitable, was also happily avoided. The Chamber had struck out the amendments made by the Senate—which consisted in the re-establishment of various credits for clerical purposes in the Budget of Expenditure for 1881, but the Senate, wisely advised, waived the point (December 22). On the Budget of Receipts an important amendment, taxing the property of recognised orders, was proposed by M. Brisson and carried by the Chamber, but replaced in the Senate by clauses subjecting all associations to the 3 per cent. tax on personal property. The Committee of the Chamber on the Budget decided, however, to recommend the maintenance of the amendment in question as it originally stood, and the least of the consequences involved in so doing would have been the postponement of the final vote on the Budget, and the necessity of making provisional arrangements for

public expenditure. Feeling ran high, but the powerful support of M. Gambetta was given to those who counselled concession, and his attitude, whilst M. Wilson spoke on behalf of the Government in favour of the Senatorial amendment (December 27), was described as that of a band-master who leads and directs the execution of a carefully concerted piece. Under this pressure the Chamber was brought to agree, with a slight modification, to the Senatorial amendment, and the Budget was voted by both Houses, which then adjourned.

The steady discussion of these important measures of home policy had been interrupted for a brief space by the debates which took place in both Houses during the last days of November on foreign affairs. Rumour had declared that the spirited tone of M. Gambetta's speech at Cherbourg indicated his decision to inaugurate a warlike foreign policy, and further asserted that the fall of M. de Freycinet was due rather to his instant and ostentatious disavowal at Montauban of any but the most pacific intentions than to his inopportune intrigues with the Vatican; consequently it was expected that the debate on foreign affairs might elicit some interesting disclosures. These expectations were, however, disappointed; and the debate, which fell exceedingly flat in both Houses, showed only that the Extreme Left and the Right were equally prepared to condemn the Government policy in any event, but had no very precise views of their own. The question of immediate interest was—what course should be pursued by the French Government in reference to the claims of Greece? In the spring of 1880 M. de Freycinet had pressed the English Cabinet for an answer to the proposal made by M. Waddington in December 1879; this last proposal made by M. Waddington had been that Janina should be left to Turkey, but that in Thessaly the boundaries should follow the extreme northern limit of the valley of the Peneus. This proposition Lord Salisbury had met by suggesting an international Commission to examine the frontier on the spot. To this, although M. de Freycinet at first objected the loss of time which it would involve, the French Government eventually assented, but immediately on the change of Government in England, they returned to the "*tracé qui englobe Janina.*" The new English Government having on this proposed a Conference at Berlin, the Marquis de la Ferronays, the French military attaché in London, was directed by his Government to suggest a line which in Epirus followed the course of the Kalamas, but in Thessaly followed the northern limit of the valley of the Peneus, thus giving both Janina and Metzovo to Greece. England adhered to this proposal, which was formally made by the Comte de St. Vallier, the French ambassador, at the meeting of the Conference in June; it was then seconded by the Italian ambassador, Count de Launay, and unanimously adopted. The decision of the Conference having been communicated to the Porte in a Collective Note, and the Porte having replied on July 27, the French Government, through M. de Freycinet,

declared that the decision of the Conference must be looked upon as irrevocable, and that the Powers would not entertain any proposal for a different line. In September, however, France, whilst agreeing in principle to the naval demonstration, tried in vain to induce the other allies to greatly limit the powers of the senior Admiral, whom it had been agreed to regard as Commander-in-Chief. The result was that the ostensible instructions sent by the French Government to their Admiral were not in exact accordance with the identical instructions given by the other five Powers; for they directed him to refer home all questions of a delicate or difficult nature, and they at the same time gave him still more private instructions that under no circumstances was he to fire a shot. Not only so, but the French squadron arrived in the Adriatic a considerable time after the squadrons of the other Powers had reached the rendezvous, although ships might have been detached for the purpose from the ordinary Mediterranean squadron of four ships which had been sent to Tunis to engage in a demonstration against Italian intervention in that principality, and these four ships actually lay at Tunis in spite of the earnest representations of the Italian Government as late as October, during which month they were at last withdrawn on the friendly interposition of England. When, on November 30, M. Barthélemy de St.-Hilaire rose to reply to the interpellations on the foreign policy of the Government, he was, however, able to announce that the demonstration and "the negotiations carried on in respect of Dulcigno with Oriental slowness" had been successful, but as regarded Greece he found himself unable, after defending the course taken by his predecessor, to say more than that "if the European concert were maintained, the Greek question would be solved by pacific measures, like that of Dulcigno."

The negotiations with England for a new commercial treaty had also proceeded during the year with "Oriental slowness," but without being brought to any conclusion. For a moment, when M. Léon Say arrived as ambassador in London, they had seemed likely to receive a satisfactory solution, but this tendency had been checked by the outcries of the Protectionist majority in the Senate. The bases at that moment agreed on for negotiation between the Government of Mr. Gladstone and M. Léon Say were:—"1. Recherche d'une classe de vins payant à l'entrée en Angleterre un droit réduit. 2. Maintien sous le régime du tarif général à l'entrée en France des bestiaux et matières agricoles, qui par conséquent ne devraient pas figurer dans le traité. 3. Recherche des moyens de faire disparaître les fraudes de Douane. 4. Amélioration du *status quo* dans le sens du développement des relations commerciales." On this last head the English Government stated that they could only understand it as meaning a reduction of duties on the principal products of English industry. It must be remembered that before the Cobden Treaty the percentage of imports from the United Kingdom to the total imports into France was

sixteen. On the conclusion of the Cobden Treaty it immediately rose to over twenty, from which point it has steadily declined until it is now lower than it was before 1860. Prices having fallen, whilst duties have remained the same, they have become *protective*. The percentage of French exports to the United Kingdom to the total of French exports from France before the conclusion of the Cobden Treaty was 23 per cent.; on the conclusion of that treaty it at once rose to over 29 per cent., and remains at that point. The table of percentage also shows that the proportion of trade with the other nation to the total trade of the country is much greater in the case of France with the United Kingdom than in that of our trade with France. Franco-English trade is about 22 per cent. of the total trade of France, while Anglo-French trade is only about 11 per cent. of the total trade of the United Kingdom. From this point of view France is much more interested than England in the conclusion of a treaty to confirm the existing commercial relations between the two countries, or to place them on a still more satisfactory footing. In the sense of the first clause of the bases of agreement cited above, Mr. Gladstone proposed in his Supplementary Budget a reduction of the duties on all wines, of which reduction that to sixpence of the existing shilling duty on wines of below 20° Sykes was the result of this arrangement with France, and was intended to hurry on the treaty. But at this moment M. Léon Say was suddenly elected President of the Senate, and a great outcry was made against him by the Protectionist members of that body on the ground that, in signing the bases for a treaty, he and the Cabinet which instructed him had violated a promise given to the French Chambers that no treaty should be made, or, as some put it, no negotiations begun, until after the general tariff then, and now, before that body had been voted. In face of this demonstration the French Cabinet executed a retreat, and M. Challemeil-Lacour, who succeeded M. Léon Say in London, allowed the matter to slumber. The proposals made by Mr. Gladstone with regard to the wine duty were consequently withdrawn, and, although a prospect has been held out of willingness to treat next year, there does not seem any immediate likelihood of the treaty being concluded.

In dealing with this important matter the Government will, however, have the advantage of being able to point to the general success of their financial administration. The year 1880 will stand out with even greater distinction than its predecessor in the annals of French finance. Although 120,000,000 fr. of taxes have been taken off, and in spite of the enormous expenses on public works entailed by the carrying out of M. de Freycinet's gigantic schemes, the indirect taxes alone have yielded an excess of 170,000,000 fr., and, after deducting all the supplementary credits voted in the course of the year, there will remain the magnificent surplus of 100,000,000 fr., as to the employment of which the Minister of Finance, M. Magnin, will take the pleasure of the Chamber in 1881.

II. ITALY.

The Grist Tax Debates—Prorogation of Parliament and its Re-assembling—Defeat of the Cairoli Ministry—Dissolution of the Chambers—The General Elections—The Autumn Session—Montenegrin Question—Ecclesiastical Policy of the Government—Attitude of the Clerical Party.

At the close of 1879 the political situation in Italy was at a deadlock; ever since March 1876 the Left had been nominally in power, and their leaders had been making vain attempts to carry out the reforms demanded by their party in the teeth of a hostile majority in the Senate and a determined opposition in the Chamber. In the Chamber the Right was not, indeed, numerically to be feared, but the high character of its leading men gave a weight to its united action, which, coupled with the possibility of coalition with Dissident elements of the Left, created constant difficulty, if not danger. For more than three years this situation of affairs had paralysed legislation, and when the two Houses adjourned on December 24, 1879, the Senate was still engaged on the Bill for the Abolition of the Grist Tax, which had formed, from the first, together with the extension of the electoral franchise, the chief point of the Ministerial programme. It was also known that the Bill would ultimately be rejected, and it was understood that the Cabinet were determined, in such case, to resort to extreme measures, and to create in the Senate that majority which they otherwise despaired of obtaining. This would, however, have but the value of a purely temporary expedient, for, although it might enable Government to get the Bill for the Abolition of the Grist Tax through the Senate, it left the difficulties of the parliamentary situation in the Chamber unmodified. In the Chamber, the interests of the South, as represented by Signors Crispi and Nicotera, were forever bringing about fresh combinations, fresh pressure, and fresh concessions, which it was equally dangerous to make or to withhold. To put an end to this state of things an appeal to the country was clearly necessary, but, whilst the Right loudly proclaimed their confidence that the verdict would be on their side, the Left naturally shrank from challenging the electors with all their pledges unfulfilled, and were determined first to make it clear that if their promised reforms still remained unaccomplished they had at least exhausted all the means in their hands.

On January 12, 1880, the two Houses met, and the Senate received from Signor Saracco the report of their committee on the Bill for the Abolition of the Grist Tax. As was foreseen, it proposed the suspension of the discussion until such time as provisions were made admitting of its abolition without danger to the financial equilibrium. A discussion, lasting over many days, then began, and finally (January 24) it was agreed in a full House

to accept the report of the committee and to refer back the Bill to the Cabinet, declaring that it would depend on the Government alone when the Senate would be ready to discuss the question anew. On this Signor Cairoli prorogued Parliament (January 25) for a fortnight, and on February 16 a list of twenty-six new Senators, chosen—as was remarked by the organs of the Right—with careful moderation, made its appearance in the *Gazetta Ufficiale*. The third Session of the thirteenth Parliament was opened by the King in person on February 17, and in the Speech from the Throne he declared that “the two legacies bequeathed by the founder of the kingdom of Italy—the reduction of taxation in the interests of the poorer classes and the extension of the franchise—were a sacred duty due to his honoured memory and to the just expectation of our people.” The Bill on Electoral Reform was, accordingly, one of the first measures introduced. It was laid on the table of the Chamber by Signor Cairoli on the 24th, and, having been declared urgent, it was decided that its discussion should immediately follow the estimates, which were then before the House.

For the moment it seemed as if the decided attitude of the Ministry had produced the desired effect, and a meeting of the Parliamentary Opposition was held (March 9) at which a letter from Signor Sella was read in which he urged his party to consider whether they had not better accept his resignation of his post as their leader, so as to be free to act as they should deem best in the question of the abolition of the Grist Tax—a subject on which he “could not modify his ideas;” and, although, on the motion of Signor Minghetti a decision was deferred till their next meeting, the *Opinione* a few days later (March 17) published a second letter from Signor Sella, in which he definitely resigned the leadership of the Right on these grounds. The prospects of the eventual abolition of the Grist Tax were therefore improved, but very little progress was made with the estimates, which had to be passed before the Bill on Electoral Reform could be taken into consideration, in spite of the repeated requests of the Prime Minister for despatch. When the Estimates for Public Works were at last disposed of (March 7), the Chamber decided, after a hot discussion, to proceed at once with those for foreign affairs, after which should be taken those of the Minister of War and all expenses connected with military matters. To this Signor Cairoli agreed, declaring that “all the Government wishes is to get all the estimates through as quickly as possible, but it has absolutely nothing to say against the proposal that the Estimates for Foreign Affairs should be taken first.”

The debate was opened by Signor Marselli (leader of the Centre) on March 11, and lasted over several days; Minghetti, Bonghi, and other noted speakers of the Right played a considerable part in it, but perhaps the most effective statement of the Opposition policy was made by Visconti Venosta, who specially

taxed the Government with neglecting the interests of Italy in the East. As to Egypt, he argued that, instead of taking precautions in favour of her creditors, Italy should have endeavoured to undermine the footing acquired there by France and England by working for Egyptian independence, and in general the speakers of the Right seemed to assume that a jealous opposition to the projects of every other Power could alone safeguard the practical interests of Italy. The debate, however, ended by a vote of confidence in the Government; but when a few weeks later the Cabinet was forced by the protracted discussions on the estimates to ask for a prolongation of the provisional administration of the Budget during the month of May, it was met by a vote of censure and placed in a minority by a coalition between the Right and the Dissident Left on this purely incidental question. The general committee on the Budget, of which Signor Crispi was president, whilst advising the House to grant the request of the Cabinet, recommended an order of the day deploring "that his Majesty's Government have had to present another demand for the provisional administration of the Budget." This was voted (April 28) by a majority of 23 in a full House of 335. The votes adverse to the Government—177—were almost equally divided between the Right and the Dissident Left, so that an analysis of the total of 335, after allowing for four abstentions, gave 154 to Ministers, 89 to their opponents on their own side of the House, and 88 to the Right. After a prolonged sitting, the Cabinet decided on resigning, and it was now clear that dissolution could no longer be postponed. On this point all were agreed, the only question being under whose auspices the new elections should take place. The Right advocated the formation of a neutral Ministry of Affairs, and the malcontent Left insisted that their leaders should be taken into the Cabinet which they, by the aid of the Right, had overthrown. To this proposed combination Signors Cairoli and Depretis gave an absolute refusal, and the King finally decided (May 1) to decline their proffered resignations, and accepted instead their proposition to dissolve the Chamber and appeal to the country. The decree dissolving the Parliament summoned in 1876 appeared in the *Gazette* of the following day; the elections were fixed for May 16, the balloting on undecided contests for the 22nd, and the meeting of the new Chamber for the 26th. This extreme haste was caused by the fact that Ministers, in the face of the language held by the organs of the Opposition, did not dare ask for yet another extension of the provisional administration of the Budget; that which had been granted would expire on May 31, and on the demand for its renewal by the new Parliament the result of the approaching elections would be tested.

The elections resulted in large Ministerial gains. The returns on May 25 showed that Signor Cairoli might perhaps count on as many as 263 votes, whilst the Right could only muster 150, and

the Dissident Left but 90. It was, however, plausibly argued that under the present conditions of the Italian electorate elections furnished no true indication of the feeling of the country. In a population of twenty-seven millions there is in Italy an electorate of about half a million; of that half a million only about 300,000 can be got to the poll, and from that 300,000 must be deducted 100,000 Government officials. That the Right had doubled its representation in the House, although thus handicapped, was in itself a result of no small importance, but a matter of far greater significance was the fact that the gains, both of the Ministerial or Constitutional Left and of the Right, had alike been made at the expense of the Dissident Left, whilst at Lendinara Signor Bertani himself, the leader of the Republican group in the Chamber, had been rejected in favour of a Constitutional candidate.

In the Speech from the Throne, delivered by the King in person on May 26, great prominence was again given to the two leading features of the programme of the Left: "My Government will invite your deliberations on the subject of the Grist Tax. I am confident that—without disturbing the financial equilibrium—you will settle this question in accordance with the best interests of my people. You will be called upon to consider a Bill for equalising the incidence of the Land Tax, and measures dealing with the financial condition of the communes, and providing for the abolition of the forced currency. I hope that to this Legislature will fall the honour of effecting that electoral reform which is desired by all—the extension of the franchise will give more perfect expression to the national will which I have always striven faithfully to interpret." After enumerating at length other points connected with the home policy, the King expressed his satisfaction at the good relations maintained with other Powers, and at the honourable part assigned to Italy in the diplomatic action intended to ensure the execution of the Treaty of Berlin. "The recent initiative of one Power," the King continued—"an initiative to which all the others, including Italy, have adhered—tends to remove those difficulties which have not yet been solved. It is to be hoped that the pacification of the districts bordering on Montenegro will avert the misfortune of a conflict. In connection with the Greek question I will not fail," he added, "with the previous assent of all the Governments, to give the most efficacious and disinterested aid in my power for the purpose of finding a solution in conformity with our common engagements and the traditions of our national policy."

The first trial of strength between the two parties in the new House took place over the election of the presidential bureau. The president, Signor Farini, who had held the same post in the previous Parliament, was elected by 410 votes in a House of 419, but on proceeding to the nomination of the secretaries, the Dissident Left—which had maintained a sullen silence in the midst of the enthusiasm with which the King's Speech had been received

by the rest of the Chamber—angry at its exclusion from office, first coalesced with the Right, and then, alarmed at the success which the Opposition seemed likely to obtain by its help, almost immediately wheeled round, and, joining the Government, managed to secure for itself in the election of the thirty members of the General Budget Committee no less than nine seats, the Ministerialists counting sixteen, whilst the Right had to be content with five. Encouraged by this achievement, the Dissident groups now put forth fresh claims to representation in the Cabinet; throughout the whole year the same kind of tactics were employed, the same demands were made, but always in vain. For although now and again placed by these means in an awkward position—as on July 3, when a resolution, equivalent to a vote of censure, was appended by the Committee on the Budget to the Bill for the Supplementary Estimates, 1878–79—Ministers always succeeded in holding their own, and when the first Session of the new Parliament came to a close on July 20, the Senate, having at last voted the Bill for the abolition of the Grist Tax (July 19), and disposed of the preliminary Budget for 1880, the position of the Government was decidedly strengthened and improved.

The first act of the reassembled Chamber (November 15) was to vote twenty days of mourning in memory of Baron Ricasoli. The influence of Ricasoli on the destinies of his country had not been confined to the brief periods during which he had held power, but his tenure of office in 1861 deserved, on account of the measures then initiated for the unification of the Italian debt, to be specially remembered at a moment when financial reforms which should complete his work were about to be offered for the consideration of both Houses.

The three specially difficult problems which awaited the opening of the autumn Session were the Bill on Electoral Reform, the provisions for the abolition of the Forced Currency, and the Budget. It was understood that the Dissident groups—which could not decently attempt to bring about a crisis either over the Bill on Electoral Reform or that on the Forced Currency—meant to give trouble either on the discussion of the interpellations or on that of the Budget, although the rumours of a coalition for that purpose between the two great chiefs, Crispi and Nicotera, had been indignantly denied. The Cabinet, warned by the annoyance which the Ferry Ministry in France had recently experienced, was determined not to challenge a vote of confidence by proposing or insisting on priority in favour of any measure. The committee on the Bill for Electoral Reform, of which Zanardelli was president, had not yet reported (although the House had solemnly engaged itself by vote in the later days of the previous Session not to separate until it had been discussed); supposing, therefore, that it were taken immediately after the Budget, at the usual rate of transacting business it could not possibly be reached before the beginning of January 1881; nor could the Bill on the aboli-

tion of the Forced Currency, which was laid on the table by the Finance Minister on the first day of the Session, be taken into consideration until a yet more distant date. The struggle, therefore, began on the interpellations (November 24), which covered the whole field of foreign and domestic policy. The Montenegrin question and the difficulties of the situation at Tunis furnished the main points of attack in foreign affairs; whilst the action taken by the Government at home in ecclesiastical matters, and their attitude towards demonstrations of a Republican character, were blamed by some as not sufficiently lenient, whilst others censured them as hostile.

In the Montenegrin question Italy had, however, played an important part. The compromise discussed in March and April by the Ambassadors at Constantinople had been entertained on the proposal of Count Corti, the representative of Italy. It consisted in an agreement—signed on April 18 by the Porte, by the Ambassadors, and by the agent of Montenegro—and proposed, owing to the resistance of the Mussulman population of Gusinje-Plevna, that the Porte should cede instead the district occupied by the Hoti-Grudi and Clementi tribes, all Roman Catholic in religion, together with the district of Kuci-Kraïna, the inhabitants of which belonged to various persuasions. The Roman Catholic resistance to the Corti compromise was so strong that it was replaced by the arrangement of which the chief feature was the cession of Dulcigno; and when the naval demonstration was proposed by England as a means of putting an end to the hesitation and double-dealing of the Porte, Italy at once became a party to it, and the Cairoli Ministry gave further proof of their readiness to co-operate with an English Government having Mr. Gladstone for its head by instantly adhering to the proposal made by England early in October to blockade Smyrna should the Porte continue secretly to encourage resistance to the execution of its own agreements. The charge of vacillation as to choice of allies and policy on this head was triumphantly met by Signor Cairoli, who stated, in terms as strong as those which he used in the Senate at a later date, in the debate on the Estimates for Foreign Affairs (December 19), that he was resolved to continue to act in strict agreement with the other Powers; in conclusion he also showed that he had never been slack to maintain such legitimate Italian influence, credit, or interests as had seemed to be menaced by the attitude of the French at Tunis. To Signori Depretis and Villa fell the task of justifying the home policy of the Cabinet, and they expressed, in especial reference to the monster meeting which had greeted Garibaldi's presence at Milan on November 2, a firm determination to admit the utmost liberty of public discussion compatible with the due preservation of public order. The ecclesiastical policy of the Cabinet, if moderate, had at least been distinctly pronounced; as far back as October 8 the advent of the French Jesuits in Italy had been met by a circular in which Signor Villa prescribed to all the *procureurs-généraux* of the

kingdom the rigorous application of the existing laws against the Company of Jesus. Nor had Ministers neglected the task of constructive legislation. In the first days of the Session a Bill was laid before Parliament which not only unified the various branches connected with the present system of State control of Church discipline and the administration and liquidation of ecclesiastical property, thereby effecting a great economical reform, but attempted to put new limitations on mortmain, bringing under its operation the glebe lands which had been exempted from the action of the laws of 1866-67; other minor provisions embodied tentative efforts in the direction of the emancipation of the lower clergy, and the Bill as a whole might be considered a serious if very modest attempt to undermine the independence of the Church in Italy, and so may ultimately open the way to the much-to-be-desired revision of the old guarantee laws.

As the debate proceeded it became evident that the Government would triumph, and the Dissident groups, perceiving this, proposed the suspension of the debate, but Signor Cairoli would not forego his advantage, rejected all offers of compromise, and demanded a vote of confidence, which was passed (November 30) by 221 to 188, the Cabinet thus obtaining a clear majority of 33.

For the moment the Chamber settled down again to the consideration of the estimates, which were disposed of in rapid succession, and on December 22 both Houses were prorogued until January 24, 1881. The estimates, with one exception, were passed without incident; a successful push was made by the Dissidents to dislodge the Minister of Public Instruction, Signor de Sanctis (December 20). Rumours of the intended resignation of this unpopular member of the Cabinet had been current during the whole Session; failing health disinclined him to make any struggle for the retention of office, but those who brought about his fall have not been equal to forcing Signor Cairoli to replace Signor de Sanctis by one of their own number. The nomination of Signor Bacelli to the vacant post shows that the Government has made so much way this year that it feels itself strong enough to continue to dispense with compromising allies. The prospect of a surplus, which seems uncontested, has redeemed their financial policy from the suspicion of foolhardiness which long attached to it, and the scheme of Signor Magliani for the abolition of the forced currency, when discussed (December 9) by the bureaux of the Chamber of Deputies, was received with general goodwill; it was, indeed, recognised that important modifications would be necessary, but Signor Minghetti, and other leading members of the Right, declared their intention of not raising any political point during the debate, all parties being held equally interested in a satisfactory solution of the question.

The attitude of the Right on this and on many other matters is seriously changed in the present Parliament by the formation within itself of what is called the "Young Right." The Young

Right are said to demand a stricter respect for the essential basis of the party—for the monarchy; for public order; for the rights of property; for the equal administration of the laws (even in the case of Garibaldi); on the other hand they are ready to make concessions on various points of economical and domestic policy—such as the abolition of the malt tax and of the forced currency, and are prepared even for a course of compromise in the matter of the Electoral Reform Bill, which, having been brought up from committee on December 21, stands on the order of the day for the first sitting after the Christmas recess. Signor Minghetti is, it is said, in essential agreement with these theories of the Young Right, who are sufficiently numerous, also, to exercise a certain influence on the councils of their party, and the consequently less hostile attitude of “his Majesty’s Opposition” must considerably strengthen the hands of Ministers in dealing with the long-vexed questions of reform now before them.

The continued abstention of the clerical party from the poll still leaves a most important element of the national life unrepresented. At the municipal elections in July the Catholic Conservatives came forward again in greater numbers, and obtained by their compact discipline even more striking success than in 1879, but from the Chamber they hold aloof. We may, perhaps, in this abstention find the cause of that want of party cohesion which reduces parliamentary government in Italy to a state of almost perpetual crisis. Sooner or later it is to be hoped that the entry of the clerical party—which is more dangerous by its absence than it can ever become by its presence—into the Chamber may lead to a stricter definition of principles, involving more solid union in the ranks of all parties. In such a case, gathering to itself the more Conservative elements both of Left and Right, the clerical party may force the Liberals to sink personal and academical dissensions as to men and methods, and unite in the serious effort to educate and enfranchise the people; above all to educate and enfranchise the people of the South, for, as long as the interests of the South and North can be opposed as different or hostile the one to the other, so long must the kingdom of Italy carry within itself the germ of possible disruption.

CHAPTER II.

GERMANY.

Position of Prince Bismarck—Foreign Policy—The Russian Scare—The Austrian Alliance—The Prussian Landtag—The Reichsrath—The Army Bill—Extension of the Anti-Socialist Laws—Relaxation of the May Laws—Elbe Navigation and Freedom of Hamburg—Negotiations with the Vatican—The Chancellor's Resignation—Its outcome—The Bundesrath—Prince Bismarck Minister of Commerce—The Anti-Jewish Agitation or "Judenhetz."

THE history of the German Empire during the year has been marked by few important incidents. The too frequently repeated assertion that the history of Germany is that of her great Chancellor can scarcely be accepted as correct, for, whilst Berlin still retains its place as the centre of European politics, none but the blindest worshippers of Prince Bismarck will assert that the aims and means of his policy have not been canvassed more freely than ever, or will deny that the stream of hostile criticism has gathered strength in every political party in the country and in the Reichsrath. The cause of this decline in the hero-worship of which the German Chancellor for fifteen years has been the object is not far to seek. It was in diplomacy and foreign policy, even more than in his contempt for parliamentary forms, that Prince Bismarck earned his fame, and this field of ambition his fellow-countrymen were ready and eager to abandon to him without reserve. The successive and signal victories which he achieved over the enemies of German unity and Prussian supremacy, both within and without the Bund, entitled him to the confidence and gratitude which his fellow-countrymen lavished upon him. In the management of the external relations of the Empire, therefore, he was recognised by all parties as the sole possible leader; and had he been content to remain the director-in-chief of German affairs in Europe, his claims would have been undisputed, and his demands for the means necessary to enforce his policy would probably have been unhesitatingly obeyed. Unfortunately for his present prestige, and probably for his future fame, the German Chancellor seemed unable to limit the area of his activity to his dealings with foreign States. He wished to prove himself equally great in all spheres of political life; and successively upon all phases of religious and political opinions, as well as upon the complex questions of finance and commerce, he aimed at leaving the mark of his individual views. He seemed to forget that the stubbornness of purpose and fixity of resolve which were of the highest use and value when dealing with national enemies were scarcely the means by which national goodwill could be fostered or commercial prosperity called into existence. His countrymen began to discover that the facility with which he divested himself of all connection with one poli-

tical party and allied himself with their opponents—only to forsake them again as his views of political expediency suggested—far from bringing men of all parties more closely together and helping forward the cause of constitutional government, was in reality only evidence of his contempt for Liberals and Conservatives alike, and that either party were by turns useful and to be used in restraining the legitimate expansion of Parliamentaryism.

The foreign policy of Germany during the year aimed above all things at maintaining the understanding which had been arrived at amongst the Powers at the time of the Congress of Berlin. The previous year had closed with a change of Ministry in France, rendering the resignation, or the recall of the French Ambassador, the Comte de St. Vallier, highly probable. Although no change ultimately occurred, the opportunity was offered to Prince Bismarck of letting it be known that neither the form of government dominant at Paris nor the colour of its opinions concerned him so long as the peace of Europe was not threatened. By the same ready recognition of the advent of a Radical Ministry in France the German Chancellor anticipated any *rapprochement* between that country and Russia, of which latter Power it suited Prince Bismarck's purpose to profess his distrust.

In the minor question of the differences which had arisen at Constantinople between Sir Henry Layard and the Porte, the German Government lost no time in intervening and identifying itself with the English demands, not only on the ground that the Turkish authorities had acted in disregard of the Treaty of Berlin and that Dr. Koeller was by birth a German subject, but also on account of the friendly relations between Germany and England, to which the treaty had in a great measure owed its existence and strength.

At the same time the relations with Russia seemed day by day to grow more strained. Official and semi-official organs united in pointing to Russia as the sole element of disturbance in Europe, and charges of ingratitude were made against her for taking no account of the good services rendered to her by Prussia during the Crimean War and during the Polish insurrection of 1863. The allusion to the course pursued by Prussia on the latter occasion provoked an amusing recrimination, in the course of which it was asserted that Prince Bismarck, who had then just been appointed Prussian Premier, whilst openly closing the frontiers, seizing arms on their way to Poland, and holding down the national party at Posen, had secretly sent a confidential agent to Dresden to confer with the Polish refugees there to see whether they could not induce their countrymen to make a demonstration in favour of Prussia.

The statement aroused a general hubbub, and was immediately contradicted in the *Norddeutsche Zeitung*, which asserted that Prince Bismarck had not only held no intercourse with the Poles, but, on the contrary, had been asked by the Russian authorities,

when hard pressed by the rebels, whether he would not assist them in curbing the Poles by accepting all the land west of the Vistula. This question being only a repetition of overtures repeatedly made by Nicholas I., and urgently repeated at the period of the Crimean War, took no one by surprise at Berlin. It was, however, declined in 1863, as it had been on all previous occasions.

After a short time the matter was allowed to drop, in order apparently to make way for a still stranger story of an insult given to some German officers stationed on the Russian frontier. It was stated in the German papers that the Russian officers in garrison at Kalisch had invited their German neighbours to dinner, and that after dinner a discussion on political questions arose, which speedily took the form of a quarrel, the disputants drawing their swords. The matter was happily settled without bloodshed, but not without the news reaching both Berlin and St. Petersburg. The strange part of the story is that although the quarrel and the subsequent confinement of the officers and men of the two armies within their respective frontiers were facts apparently authenticated by wholly independent witnesses, the whole matter was officially pronounced to be a fabrication by the Commander-in-Chief of the 5th German Army Corps, stationed at Posen.

Whether the incident actually occurred matters but little; the comments which it excited in the press of both Empires showed clearly the antagonism which existed, if not between the German and Russian peoples, at least between those who guided the policy, if they did not shape the destiny, of the two Empires. Prince Bismarck, at all events, was not sorry to have thus fashioned for his hands, if not by them, a lever by which he hoped to move the German Parliament to consent to the imposition of increased military burdens; and at the same time to prove to Prince Gortschakoff that no attempt to re-cement the Triple Alliance would come from Germany; and that, were it reconstituted, it must be upon the terms to which Austria had agreed—the undisputed supremacy of Germany.

Whether there was ever any real danger of an open rupture between Russia and Germany cannot be accurately ascertained. At any rate the scare was most successfully raised, and the peril, if any, promptly averted. Towards the close of January the first rumours crept abroad that Austria and Germany proposed to ask diplomatically for an explanation of the massing of Russian troops alleged to be going on in Poland and in the western provinces of the Czar's dominions. The simultaneous hoisting of the danger signal in Berlin and Vienna, whilst it alarmed the commercial and peaceful inhabitants of both capitals, elicited from the St. Petersburg journals no other sign than a general disclaimer of hostile intentions. At the same time no concealment was there made of the chagrin occasioned by the apparently fixed determination of German statesmen to seek their future alliances in Central Europe, and to abandon the traditional policy of union with Russia. The

most important statement of German official views of the situation appeared in the *Norddeutsche Zeitung*.

"On the western frontier of Russia," said this semi-official organ, "fresh fortifications are contemplated. Kovno, close to the Prussian frontier, is to be surrounded with detached forts. The Warsaw and St. Petersburg line is to be protected by fresh military erections at Grodno and Bialystok. The Russian Government certainly can have no apprehensions of a German attack. Yet it is hard to believe that such extensive and expensive structures are taken in hand without some adequate object. The immediate purpose of the Russian Government in taking these measures probably is to feign apprehension of a German attack. If they succeed in producing this impression among their subjects, it will be easy to get up a hostile excitement against Germany and her putative designs. If it be true that Russian designs against Germany, fomented, it is well known, by General Count Miliutine, Minister of War, are put off only till France shall be ready to join, the new Russian fortifications on the German frontier must be intended as a base for aggression against this country. According to Napoleon I., Europe was to have been either Republican or Cossack within fifty years of his time. These fifty years have passed by, and one cannot help regarding it as very significant that such an experienced politician as Napoleon should have looked upon the French and the Russians as the two only conquering nations bent upon grasping what is not their own, and aiming at absolute predominance in the world. There are certainly but too many incidents in history justifying the view taken by the French Emperor. Neither France nor Russia ever had anything to fear from Germany. Russia has been repeatedly invaded by Swedes and Poles, who are no longer in a position to repeat the experiment; France in all her wars with Germany has always been the aggressor. The colossal armaments of these two States which oppress all Europe can be only meant to usher in a new policy of aggression."

The references in this article to France gave no umbrage in Paris. They were there accepted as fair comments on the abortive attempts of Russia to force on an arming of France against Germany in the previous year. In the Prussian Chamber of Deputies a few days later, Herr von Kardorff, a Ministerial member of the German Parliament and an intimate personal adherent of Prince Bismarck, observed in the House that "the Russians, who formerly fancied Constantinople might be taken at Vienna, had perceived their error, and now intended to conquer the Bosphorus at Berlin. Whether Panslavist or Nihilist," he added, "all the powerful agencies at work in Russia were revolutionary; the only difference was that the Government party wished to subvert everything abroad, while the party opposed to the Government were anxious to apply the process, for the present at least, to things domestic. In principle the two sections of Russian society were only too

much alike, and, unless restrained by the German army, would be sure to flood this country before long."

The storm, however, was in a month's time dissipated almost as suddenly as it had gathered. As in 1875, when the Russian Emperor intervened to moderate the warlike ardour and anti-French sentiments of certain German officials, so now the direct communications which took place between the two rulers upon the occasion of the Emperor Wilhelm's eighty-third birthday sufficed to show that no real estrangement existed between the two monarchs, and that their mutual regard was a pledge for the continuance of amicable relations, at least during their lifetime. Meanwhile, however, Prince Bismarck had made the German Parliament acquainted with the details of his Army Bill, and had afforded a pretext, if not a reason, for its acceptance by all patriotic men; and the sequel proved that he had rendered the influence of Gortschakoff and his anti-German colleagues in the Russian Cabinet nugatory, and had paved the way for their subsequent supersession.

On the other hand, Prince Bismarck throughout the year, and in spite of the changes in the *personnel* of the Vienna Cabinet, strongly supported the Austro-German alliance which he had concluded in the previous year. In the occupation of Novi-Bazar, Austria-Hungary received the cordial support of her new ally; and subsequently, when the Berlin Conference was reopened in order to discuss the Greek and Montenegrin questions, the Austrian proposals in the latter imbroglio were adopted by the influence of Germany against the supposed objections of Great Britain, Russia, and Italy. The advantage Austria-Hungary acquired by her proposition was the extension of her rights to discharge police functions along so much of the Turkish coast as should be ceded to Montenegro. In the later incidents of this transaction, and the complications which arose from it, Germany steadily threw her influence on the side of Austria and supported her policy; her object being seemingly to teach her new ally to seek on the Danube for compensation for her losses in Western Europe. This apparently complete change in all Prince Bismarck's previously expressed views with regard to Austrian policy and its influence in Europe called forth much comment, and many explanations were suggested for the revolution effected in the traditionary policy of Prussia. A totally new view was early in March put before the public by the *Grenzboten*, a weekly magazine, to which Dr. Moritz Busch was one of the chief contributors, and the columns of which were firmly believed to be occasionally inspired by the Chancellor. According to this version the idea of an Austro-German alliance was fervently cherished by Prince Bismarck as far back as 1866, when he was for tendering the hand of friendship to the vanquished House of Hapsburg. As long, however, as Count Beust remained in power, the Chancellor's project existed merely in the form of a desire, and it was only when Count Andrassy succeeded the ex-Saxon Minister that the Chan-

cellor's hopes of achieving the coveted alliance began to brighten. Means, however, were not immediately forthcoming. At last came the Russo-Turkish War, the Berlin Congress, and the execution of the treaty, accompanied with a request, at first urgent, and then almost threatening, on the part of the Russians that the Government of the Emperor William might recognise and support their claims, which included unfair and perilous demands. At the same time intrigues of all kinds began to be carried on. Muscovite diplomacy commenced to cast about for allies against Germany—among other places in Paris, where General Obrutscheff, the adjutant and familiar of the War Minister, M. Miliutine, assumed the rôle of counter-plotter. The French Government, however, not only withstood the wiles of the tempter, but acquainted German diplomatists of the machinations of the Muscovite. The menaces of the Russians, however, continuing, their audacious conduct could only be accounted for at Berlin on the supposition that an understanding between St. Petersburg and Vienna either existed or was being negotiated. Count Andrassy's visit to the Russian capital and various other symptoms only tended to deepen this apprehension, and it was in a state of no small doubt and fear that Prince Bismarck last summer repaired to Kissingen and Gastein; for his Highness could not be blind to the fact that in the event of a Russo-Austrian Alliance been formed against Germany the entry of France into the coalition was not only possible but probable, or scarcely even a question of time. Whether England in such a case would support Germany was doubtful, British policy not readily espousing the cause of any Power which does not seem to have the supremacy. That there was then in Vienna a party well disposed towards Russia was generally known, nor was it inconceivable that its members might fondly deem it would be no unfair bargain for Russia to be allowed pretty free sway on the Balkan Peninsula, if in return Austria were helped to assert and even extend her influence in Germany. In short, according to the Berlin reading of the political constellation, storms seemed to be brewing on the south-eastern horizon. The appearance, however, of Count Andrassy at Gastein scattered the gathering clouds, and after the way in which that statesman talked and argued, Prince Bismarck came to the conclusion that the apprehensions he had entertained with respect to Austria-Hungary were without real foundation. The Chancellor seized the opportunity of mentioning his long-cherished scheme, which was cordially appreciated by his illustrious colleague and embodied in its existing shape. The article then proceeded to describe the great difficulties encountered by the Chancellor before he could procure the assent and signature of the Emperor to the memorandum of agreement, and concluded by saying that, despite the friendly relations between the sovereigns of Berlin and St. Petersburg, the alliance with Austria-Hungary would continue to endure for the good of the German people.

Many will learn now for the first time that Prince Bismarck up

to his visit to Gastein suspected the intentions of Austria—which must sound all the more singular to those who remember that the abrogation of the Schleswig-Holstein article in the Treaty of Prague, to speak of nothing else, was regarded as betokening mutual confidence and cordiality between the two Empires.

The Prussian Landtag had met as usual at the close of the previous year, and, after much discussion, it had passed the Bill for the purchase of certain railways by the State. On its reassembling after the New Year's holidays, a number of domestic measures and the various departmental budgets were the objects of much heated debate, and in some few instances of successful opposition. Amongst these one may be specially noticed as indicative of the views of the Government as to its duties with regard to local distress.

On January 9, the Home Minister laid a Bill before the Prussian Diet asking for six millions of marks (about 300,000*l.*) towards assisting the famine-stricken districts of Upper Silesia. In addition to providing food, forage, and seed, the Government proposed to expend a portion of the sum in draining and irrigation, to put down with a strong hand the system of usury prevalent in the districts, and to facilitate the migration of labourers and artisans to other parts of the country, and to give an impetus to local manufactures. The number of persons requiring relief exceeded 100,000, and for these the very necessities of life had to be provided without delay. As a permanent means of improving the district, two branch lines of railway were to be constructed, towards which the State would be called upon to contribute 12,500,000 marks. The relief loan was to be ultimately repaid, but in very small instalments, in order that the people might have a fair chance of permanently improving their condition. All advances would be recognised as legal charges on the land, and would not be personal to those who obtained them.

As the Session wore on it became plain that the Government would have to invent a new combination amongst the members if it cared to obtain legislative sanction for its measures. The Conservatives, on whom the Ministry had counted for support, were broken up by conflicting interests, and the majority of the Chamber was gradually gravitating towards the National Liberals. It was scarcely likely that Prince Bismarck would care for the support of the Conservatives unless they could agree amongst themselves to sink all minor differences. Together the old and new Conservatives had commanded a majority in the Chamber, and, in spite of certain misgivings on the part of the more liberal amongst them as to the aim of the Ultramontane section, the arrangement seemed to promise Prince Bismarck that support which he looked for in vain elsewhere. In the beginning of the Session great harmony existed among the Conservatives on all Church and school questions, an alliance with the Centre party had been concluded for that purpose, and for a time this majority hoped to induce the Government completely to break off all relations with the Liberals.

It was, however, soon seen that the Conservatives had practised a false strategy in making an alliance with the Ultramontanes, as the latter were not willing to support the Government in the most important questions regarding the buying of railways by the State, the Bill of reforms in the administration, &c. The Government was obliged to ask again for the support of the National Liberals; and as the new Conservatives were not inclined to share in the opposition of the old Conservatives and the Centre party, a complete disorganisation of the Conservative majority resulted. The Conservative party had always shown great vacillation, relying now on the Liberals, now on the Ultramontanes, and even, in many cases, directly opposing the proposals of the Government. The Conservatives had, therefore, proved untrustworthy allies to every party, the Government included.

The opening of the German Reichsrath on February 12 by the Vice-Chancellor, Count Stolberg, hastened the suspension of the sittings of the Prussian Landtag, but only transferred to a wider scene the contest which had been going on between political parties and leaders. In the Speech from the Throne the need of increasing the Imperial revenues to alleviate State burdens was insisted upon; the voting of a two years' Budget invited; the new Army Bill foreshadowed; and an extension of the Anti-Socialist law requested. The constitution of parties in the Reichsrath on its reassembling was thus defined: Conservatives, 113; Clericals, 102; National Liberals, 86; "Savages," 47; Progressists or Fortschritt-partei, 23; Alsace-Lorrainers, 15; Poles, 14; and Social Democrats, 8.

The earlier sittings of the German Parliament were devoted to the discussion of a loan Bill required to cover the deficit of previous years, and to the rights of members to take their seats unhindered, although at the time the objects of criminal proceedings for having returned to Berlin in spite of a sentence of expulsion. The champions of parliamentary privilege were supported by a large majority of the House, not a few Clericals voting for the reinstallment of the two Social Democrats. The real struggle between parties took place early in the Session. Although its issue was a foregone conclusion, it served to emphasize more clearly the relation of the different shades of political parties towards the Government and towards one another.

In the early part of the year a Bill for making modifications and improvements in the Imperial military law had been laid before the Federal Council, whereby from April 1, 1881, the infantry was to be formed into 503 battalions, the field artillery into 340 batteries, the foot artillery into 31 battalions, and the sappers and miners into 19. At the same time several new regiments were to be created—namely, 11 infantry, that is, 8 Prussian, 1 Bavarian, and 2 Saxon, regiments, 1 field artillery regiment (Prussian) of 8 batteries, 32 field batteries (namely, 24 Prussian, 4 Bavarian, 2 Saxon, and 2 Würtemberg), 1 foot artillery and 1 sapper regiment. The increase of the expenditure for the

different German governments was reckoned:—For Prussia, 12,773,896 marks; for Saxony, 1,822,000 marks; for Würtemberg, 547,242 marks; for Bavaria, 2,170,104 marks; giving a total of over 17,000,000 marks. For the building of barracks, magazines, &c., a gross sum of 26,713,216 marks was asked, of which Prussia would contribute 20,172,266 marks; Saxony, 3,220,400 marks; Würtemberg, 428,050 marks; Bavaria, 2,892,500 marks. The strength of the army in peace would by this law be fixed from April 1, 1881, to March 31, 1888. When the Bill of May 2, 1874, was passed, the population of Germany was estimated at 41,610,150, and as 1 per cent. was to be under the banners every year, the strength of the army had hitherto been 401,659. The population having very much increased during the last seven years, the number of men in the future under the banners would be proportionately augmented.

Such, in brief, is an outline of the Government proposals, which emerged from the Federal Council with very slight, if any, modifications. On March 1 the Bill was brought before the Reichsrath, and the motion for its first reading gave rise to a protracted and interesting debate. Prince Bismarck was prevented by the state of his health from attending, and the conduct of the measure was confided to General von Kameke, the Minister of War, who spoke very briefly. He said that the German Government regarded it as its duty to maintain the relative strength of the German army. Germany's neighbours having considerably added to their military forces, there remained nothing but to follow suit. Germany was arming not for any immediate hostilities, but to maintain the balance of power. Herr Richter von Hagen, a Progressist, next spoke. After administering a severe castigation to the official press, which had been alarming men's minds, he declared that after the Minister's speech the political aspect of Europe could no longer be adduced in support of the measure:—

“Whatever were Russia's intentions, her strength, it was well known, was steadily decreasing. Despotism and the Greek religion no longer sufficed to keep the empire together. Russia mobilised 1,500,000 men in the late Eastern war; but the army was so intrinsically weak as barely to overcome the Turk. And what did the Government think of the increase in the national and financial burden under which the nation was groaning? They had the old taxes, the new duties, and the decrease of national wealth consequent on Protection, and now were expected to spend a further sum of 17,000,000 marks a year upon the army.”

Field-Marshal Count Moltke followed at once, and, whilst admitting that Europe was weighed down by military burdens, maintained that so long as the present distrust prevailed Governments would be obliged to add to their military preparations. Governments were not exclusively responsible for the present state of things:—

“Party leaders frequently stirred up the people to engage in some rash enterprise, more especially if domestic discord sought to vent itself in foreign adventure. Then there was also the endeavour inherent in some nationalities to annex cognate races, or to take revenge for disasters sustained in previous campaigns. From all these national proclivities the German Empire suffered more severely than any other State. Germany was surrounded by warlike neighbours, while all her neighbours had one or several flanks exempt from attack, so it was evident that Germany had to put up with heavier military pressure than any other country. Was the House aware that the military array of France and Russia was to a very large extent disposed along the German frontier? This was not necessarily a symptom of warlike intentions, yet it had to be taken into account in organising and distributing the German forces. If this country, so often the battlefield of neighbouring nations, wished to guard against a recurrence of foreign invasion, there was no alternative but to arm in time.”

Herr Reichensperger, the Ultramontane leader, declared that the German people had been already too fearfully impoverished by the military burden for their representatives to form new battalions. Herr von Bennigsen, the National Liberal spokesman, proclaimed the readiness of his political friends to vote for the Bill, not to oblige the Government, but to ensure the safety of the country:—

“In carrying her armaments to such a formidable pitch, France could have no object but to attack Germany upon some future occasion. The Russian Emperor, no doubt, was pacifically disposed towards Germany; but Germany was exceedingly unpopular in the very highest quarters in Russia, and there was, unfortunately, the danger of Panslavism boiling over and overflowing the border line. He could not but thank the Chancellor on this occasion for concluding the Austrian alliance, and thereby creating a guarantee against contingent perils.”

Some amusement was then caused by Herr von Bühler—“a gentleman of millennial tendencies”—who mounted the tribune to oppose the measure and unfold a plan for the attainment of universal peace. The debate was closed for the day by Professor Treitschke, the historian, who wound up his patriotic remarks with the stirring words—“We will threaten no one, but our neighbours must know that, if anyone should dare to attack us, we are all one, a host valiant in arms, a strong people.”

The debate was then adjourned until the following day, when it was resumed by Count von Frankenberg, a staunch Conservative, who insisted on the heartiness with which he and the whole of the Imperialist party shared the views of Count von Moltke as to the dangers to which Germany was exposed on all sides. He expressed his conviction that the Triple Alliance still existed, and that the friendship of the three monarchs was still intact, but that Russia had entirely changed its feelings towards Germany. He

congratulated the Government on the Austro-German agreement, which he pronounced to be intensely popular in Germany. Freiherr von Staffenberg next spoke. Formerly First Vice-President, but now chief among the Left wing of the National Liberals who have separated from the bulk of the party on this question, he claimed the right of each Parliament to settle each year its Military Budget. Dr. Windthorst, the leader of the Ultramontanes, then mounted the tribune, and in a bitter but humorous speech contrasted the official announcement from the throne and by Ministers of the pacific nature of all their external relations with the present demand for increased armaments. He was ready to support all reforms proved to be necessary, but in the present case the necessity had not been proved. The "Pearl of Meppen" was followed by Herr Bebel, the Social Democrat, who declaimed in fiery invective against the evils of the military system, and urged that a year's training, combined with the general conscription, sufficed for the safety of the country. After a short discussion the Bill was then referred to a Committee of twenty-one members. Before this Committee General von Kameke revealed the enormous strides made by France and Russia towards a complete arming of the population, and depicted in almost piteous tones the backward condition of the German forces. In spite of these and other Ministerial pleas, the Committee amended the Government Bill in so far that the number of supplementary reserves of the first class required to join in the military manoeuvres should in time of peace be settled yearly with the Budget; but in cases of urgency all such might be called out by Imperial order at any time for a period not exceeding eight weeks. On April 9 the Bill came back again from the Committee with its recommendations. To these were added one by the Freiherr von Staffenberg to the effect that the increased forces should only be voted to March 31, 1881, and two by Herr Richter von Hagen to the effect that the peace footing of the army should be fixed by the Imperial Budget, and that the period of service in the line should be reduced from three to two years. These amendments were vigorously supported by Dr. Lasker, and opposed by Count von Stolberg, who argued that in the real interests of economy the Army Budget should be voted for seven years. Herr Richter wound up his speech in support of his views by a bitter attack upon the Clericals and the Nationalists, who vied with each other in obsequious rivalry to the Chancellor. Herr Rickert, a Nationalist, repelled this accusation, and prayed for the time when the military question would cease to be a party one. Herr Lieber, on behalf of the Centre, declared that his party would vote against the septennate. The Minister of War having replied and declined to modify his demands, the House divided, and the military septennate was voted by 186 against 96. The third reading was taken a few days later, and, with the exception of an amendment exempting the Catholic and Protestant clergy from serving in the reserves, the Bill was passed as framed

by 186 votes against 128. The majority was made up of the Conservatives and National Liberals, whilst the Opposition included the dissident Liberals, Herr von Forckenbeck, Dr. Lasker, and Dr. Bamberger, the Fortschritt-partei, the Centre or Clericals, the Poles, and the Social Democrats.

Of scarcely less importance than the Army Regulation Bill was the Government measure for prolonging for a further period of five years from March 31, 1881, the Anti-Socialist Bill passed in October 1878. At the time of its first enactment the Ultramontanes made common cause with the Socialists in denouncing the repressive policy of the Government. The interval had furnished them reasons for changing, if not their views, at least their votes, and they thus found themselves voting on the same side as the Conservatives and the National Liberals, although from the latter Dr. Lasker and one or two others had seceded. The only interesting speech on the first reading (March 6) was that in which Dr. Windthorst alluded to the Clerical change of front, which he explained as arising from unwillingness to abrogate a law now that it was in force. Herr Bebel denounced the vexatious tyranny of the Berlin police, and his Socialist colleague, Herr Valteich, protested that he and his friends appealed to posterity for justification. The Bill was ultimately referred to a Select Committee, when one or two important modifications were introduced, notably one limiting the action of the Bill to three and a half years instead of five as asked by the Government, the exemption of deputies from the application of the expulsion clauses, and the legalisation of collections for families of Socialists who may have been banished or otherwise come within the reach of the law. In two sittings (April 18, 19) the Bill thus amended was considered. The seven Social Democrats had apparently studied Parliamentary obstruction in a neighbouring State, and to each member was allotted the task of moving repeal of one obnoxious clause. The majority, however, were not taken unawares. After a short discussion it was determined to combine the seven motions of the repealers—promising them at the same time to listen (witness the bounds of Prussian patience!) to their arguments. One by one the members of this little group arose. Herr Wiemeis complained of the unfair application of the law against public meetings; Herr Fritsche about the suppression of co-operative societies; Herr Hasenclever denounced the suppression of newspapers and pamphlets by the police; Herr Bebel their interference with electoral meetings; and Herr Kayser pleaded the hardships inflicted by the state of siege under which Berlin and so many other towns had been placed, finding on this point a supporter in Dr. Windthorst. Count Eulenberg, the Minister of the Interior, was enabled to reply to all these arguments and objections seriatim. He said that since the passing of the Act, 105 persons had under it been expelled from Berlin, and added that “the pressure and terrorism brought to bear on the inhabitants of the capital by Socialist

agitation continued in an extraordinary degree, and it was this pressure which had induced the majority of the Imperial Parliament to approve the law before them. The only question was whether it was expedient to extend the application of the measure. The gentlemen of the Social Democratic party themselves afforded the most copious material and arguments for its continuance. The agitation which had first made the law necessary still went on, and therefore the renewal of the state of siege clause was also essential. Against an idea they could not battle with a law, but it was the duty, as it was in the power, of the Government to oppose an agitation to the extent, at least, of enabling the rest of the population to engage in their pursuits in confidence and quiet. The Prussian Government would like to see the rest of Germany free from the menace of the measure, though not forbidden itself to make use of it; but the times, unfortunately, were not yet nearly ripe for that."

The Bill was ultimately passed on May 4 by 191 to 94 votes, the debate on the third reading being chiefly occupied by a brilliant and eloquent diatribe from Herr Liebknecht, who threw in the face of the Government Cavour's well-known maxim, that any bunglers could govern under a state of siege.

The first appearance of Prince Bismarck in Parliament was on May 9, on a question affecting the navigation of the Elbe and the rights of the Hanse city of Hamburg. In March a revised Elbe Navigation Act or agreement between Germany and Austria had been concluded. One clause stipulated for the former country the optional right to remove the present Customs frontier on the river lower down the stream. This Act or treaty regulates, among other things, the Customs formalities to be observed by vessels entering the Elbe from the sea; and whereas hitherto Bergedorf, a place considerably above Hamburg, had been the examining station, the German Government now seemed to contemplate selecting Glückstadt, half-way down the estuary, below the free Hanse city, as the riparian toll-bar. Some deputies contended that the alteration of the Customs frontier in this way would unquestionably tend to nullify many of those privileges enjoyed by Hamburg as a free port, while others, looking at it from the more elevated, if perchance less practical, platform of constitutional law, averred that the Federal Council of itself was not, as it claimed to be, properly entitled to decree the new delimitation proposed, but that Parliament should also have a sanctioning share in the transaction.

Prince Bismarck, acting on the resolution of the Trade and Customs Committee of the Bundesrath, had hit upon an expedient by means of which he had, as he conceived, avoided the constitutional difficulty involved in the right claimed by the Bundesrath to incorporate St. Pauli with the Customs territory of the Empire. This method of settlement, however, was in no way approved by Dr. Delbrück, a distinguished ex-Minister, who had

won great honour in the work of building up the German Empire. A member of the Parliamentary Committee to which the Elbe Navigation Act had been referred, he had persuaded that body to accept the following resolution, which he himself proposed to the Reichsrath:—

“The Revised Elbe Navigation Act, signed at Vienna on March 7, should receive the constitutional approval, with the proviso that the existing Customs frontier on the Elbe can only by law be removed to any place below the present line.”

In a short and simple speech Dr. Delbrück advocated and justified on constitutional grounds the qualification proposed. Prince Bismarck rose immediately after his late colleague had sat down. The first part of his speech was a somewhat laborious attempt to prove that the Reichsrath was incompetent to pass a motion of the nature proposed. “If asked,” he said, “why, under great personal difficulties, he had come to take part in a debate to which he did not attach great practical importance, he could only reply that he felt it to be a necessity with him once more in his life to take the perspective of Parliament, and speak to it again as before, to bear witness against the party and Particularist tendencies obstructing the development of the Empire; and if not in a position to repeat his evidence from his present place, he believed that, if God gave him life, he would still be in a position, on the seats they occupied, as a simple member of Parliament, to give expression to the great idea of nationality which inspired almost all of them nearly ten years ago”—a flight of earnest oratory which caused a great and visible sensation throughout the House. “He had, therefore, been brought thither by anxiety for the further development of the Imperial Constitution and the desire to warn them against standing still and even receding, and he must say that, on seeing himself opposed by his most active and valued fellow-worker in the creation of the Constitution, now walking arm-in-arm with the Clericals, who were then against it, he felt that the retrograde motion and the decrease of enthusiasm for the national progress which then swayed them all had already gone an exceedingly long way. His *gravamen*, however, applied more to what he called the ‘appendices’ of the Centre, who used its siege tower—always standing opposite the Government ready for battle and attack, this passive element, this dead weight—to climb up and throw their wall-breakers against the Government, and, resting on their alliance with the Centre, to assail and vote against it. Centre, Poles, and Progressists formed the firm with which the Government previously had to deal, but this coalition had in the Samoa affair been reinforced by Free-trade, which even infected the Conservatives, though, he thanked God, only to a slight extent yet.”

The Prince went on to say that the fear of Parliamentary unpleasantness was perhaps much greater in most politicians than with him. In the course of his life he had had opportunity enough

to prove that he would not allow himself to be outdone; he had neither let himself be outdone by Parliamentary nor by Particularist tendencies, and he hoped that God would not grudge him at his present age, though physically weak, the mental energy still to enable him steadfastly and continuously to thwart every such attempt at outdoing him—a wish which on the Right was hailed with lively cries of “Bravo!” He warned them from breeding dispeace between the governments:—

“In questions of utility the latter might vote against each other as much as they liked, but in a question of constitutional rights to put Prussia in the minority, he told them, was not without danger. He told them that in full consciousness of all the history he had lived through during the last thirty years. And when he said not without danger, they were not to assume that he was afraid of peril and recoiled from it—that he did just as little as ever. He had now fought the fight of German unity for thirty years, and he had been for eighteen years in the position described by a French historian, whom some time ago he took up to beguile a sleepless night, where he speaks thus of a statesman accorded much more merit than he himself could claim:—‘Il devait succomber au poids des haines inassouvies qui s’accumulent sur la tête de tout Ministre qui reste trop longtemps au pouvoir.’ He himself, too, had had within the last eighteen years to wrestle violently in turn with all parties, and hence the ‘haines inassouvies’ referred to by the French historian. But now he was no longer young; he had lived, loved, and fought, and he had no longer any disinclination for a quiet life. The only thing which retained him at his post was the will of the Emperor, whom at his advanced age he had never been able to leave against his will, though he had several times tried it. But he could tell them he was weary, dead weary, especially when he considered against what kind of obstacles he had to fight when wishing to stand up for the German Empire, the German nation, and German unity. If he proposed to the Empire to hand over to others the burden he was no longer himself able to bear he must, of course, make other proposals also, and he was convinced that, after the long confidence bestowed upon him by his Majesty, the latter would listen to them with respect. Seeing, as he did, that the power of the Centre was insuperable, and that the disunion prevailing among all other Germans remained the same, he would be obliged, in the interest he felt for domestic peace, to propose to his Majesty, on retiring, to form a Cabinet capable of harmonising the wishes of the Centre and Conservative parties. Not being able to submit himself to the system represented by the Centre, and also believing that the claims urged by the members of that party would never allow of peace being permanently established in Prussia if they did not modify their pretensions, it was pretty much the same to him whether or not after him ‘progress and Free-trade’ (*Fortschritt und Freihandel*) urged his successor on the way to Canossa—he could endure it as well as

others; but the other way was only possible when all those who did not countenance the efforts of the Centre party did not put aside for the time all comparatively trivial disputes—when, in short, all the Liberal fractions could firmly resolve to deny the Centre their assistance absolutely and for ever.”

If they could not do that, then his views of the future would be dismal; but if they could, he would devote his remaining strength to the struggle, though able to look upon every failure as calmly as any of them. The Prince concluded as follows:—

“I know not why the German Empire and its future should be dearer to me than to any one of you. You are all Germans; each of you can be Minister for a time and be so no longer; but that I must necessarily take a deeper interest in the Empire than other Germans because I have happened to be its Chancellor for a long time I do not believe, although at the same time I could not make up my mind to pursue the Saturnian policy followed by the colleague who spoke before me. To stand calmly by (like him) and behold the German Empire, which I helped to found at the expense of my life's power, retrogressing—that I could not do. At my time of life, however, one becomes quieter and calmer. I stand in need of tranquil solitude. Settle the affairs of the Empire to your own satisfaction; only do not ask for my co-operation if each of you feels himself justified and called upon to call in question the foundations of the Empire.”

The Left greeted the conclusion of the Chancellor's speech with that emphatic hissing which is in the German Parliament the permissible method of expressing dissent, and Prince Bismarck abruptly left the House without waiting to hear Dr. Wolfson exculpate himself and his constituency (Hamburg) and the Liberal party from the charge of Particularism. Dr. Windthorst next complained that the Chancellor had not waited to hear the defence of the Clericals, who were the true friends of the Empire, as their attitude in 1870 and again in 1879 had proved. He and his party wished to go hand-in-hand with the Government; but they refused to neglect the interests of the Catholic party. The debate was continued for some time longer, and ultimately nearly all the clauses of the Bill were rejected, including that relating to the removal of the Customs frontier on the Elbe from a point above to a place below Hamburg. Dr. Delbrück's motion, nevertheless, on being put to the vote was rejected by 138 to 110 votes, although its principle was virtually accepted by the rejection of the clause in the original Bill. At the same time Herr von Bennigsen's motion to refer back the Bill to a Select Committee was rejected on the second reading—the numbers for and against it being equal—but adopted on the third by a large majority. The Bill was consequently lost for the Session, which then closed.

The growing relations of Germany and the Papacy were early made known through the newly-established organ of the Vatican, the *Aurora*. The tone in which the Italian paper at once defined

the basis on which Leo XIII. was prepared to negotiate, and the result proved that the belief that concessions might be expected from the German Chancellor was not altogether without foundation. "We hope," wrote the *Aurora*, "that the clever man who holds in his hand the reins of the German Empire may make a second and final step towards recognising the Catholic Church. Statesmen must accept the Church as she is, whether their object be to satisfy the claims of Catholics or to utilise her moral force. Everything in the Church is in order by the Church—divine worship, instruction, and organisation; and to take one part away is to throw its entire working out of gear." Prince Bismarck was urged to save society, menaced by revolutionary opinion, by that aid which the Church, the great Conservative power, could alone put into his hands. In Germany the tone of the Vatican was considered, especially by the Liberal organs, to be absurdly arrogant, and there were loud assurances on all sides that the concessions must come from the Church if she cared for State favour and protection. Nothing definite, however, transpired on either side, and, although it was understood the negotiations between Germany and the Vatican were being carried on, there was nothing to show to which side the initiative was due. A passage in a letter addressed by the Pope himself on February 24 to the Archbishop of Cologne seemed to point to both the wish and the belief that a *modus vivendi* would be arrived at—that both Church and State were growing weary of the *Culturkampf* :—

"Gradually," wrote Pope Leo XIII., "and little by little, hollow suspicion and its invariable accompaniment, unrighteous envy towards the Church, will cease, and the chiefs of the State, looking at facts in a favourable and appreciative light, will easily come to see that we do not interfere with the rights of others, and that between the ecclesiastical and political powers a lasting understanding may exist, provided only there does not fail on both sides the will and the inclination to maintain peace, or, if need be, restore it. That we are animated with this spirit and this will must be the firm and unflinching conviction of thee, reverend brother, and all believers in Germany. Yes, we cherish this will so decidedly that, in view of the advantages likely to result therefrom for public order, we make no scruple of declaring to thee that we, in order to hasten this understanding, will permit the names of those priests chosen by the Bishops as fellow-workers in their diocese in the cure of souls to be primarily submitted for approval to the Prussian Government."

The refusal of the Vatican to concede to Prussia a power exercised without dispute in France, Austria, and other countries had, it should be explained, been hitherto based on the ground that the Prussian dynasty and Government was essentially Protestant. This concession on the part of the Vatican would have been important had it not been hampered by conditions and reservations which destroyed its value and reality. It was nevertheless

met by a general promise by the Prussian Ministry to modify the May Laws, the enforcement of which, instead of being obligatory, should be left to the discretion of the Government. It was, of course, to be expected that the Prussian Minister should wish it to be thought that all the advances towards peace had come from the Vatican, and this was the view put forward by the official organs, whilst they admitted that the present head of the Catholic Church was of a very different nature to his predecessor. Whilst his "advances were gratefully accepted," it was at the same time stated that no illusion existed in the mind of the German Chancellor and statesmen that such advances implied any change of principle in the policy of the Roman Curia. This estimate of the intentions of the Vatican was fully borne out when the Prussian Government suggested that as a preliminary to dealing with the recalcitrant clergy and the vacant sees and cures, the expelled Bishops should declare their submission to the existing laws. As the prelates in question had throughout been acting in accordance with orders from Rome, it was difficult to understand why for their obedience to their superiors they should be asked to admit that they had been in the wrong. The Archbishop of Cologne alone announced his willingness to accept the Prussian proposal, and as the Vatican was not disposed to issue any orders to the other Bishops, the negotiations threatened to end in a deadlock. Meanwhile the anti-Ministerial organs were busily engaged in insinuating that Prince Bismarck had already started on a pilgrimage to Canossa; and was about to prove to the world, as the French Vice-Emperor M. Rouher had done before him, the danger of the use in politics of the word '*Jamais!*'

This surmise was upset by the publication of a despatch, dated April 20, from Prince Bismarck to Prince Reuss, the German Ambassador at Vienna, through whom the negotiations had been carried on with Cardinal Jacobini, the Papal Nuncio. The letter began thus:—

"The attitude of the Ultramontanes had quite prepared me to expect sooner or later such relapses in our negotiations as are announced in your Excellency's reports of the 15th and 16th instant. For the future, too, we must make up our minds that every diplomatic means will be employed on the side of Rome before we attain to a tolerable *modus vivendi*. The Romish prelates, in consequence of their defective insight into the circumstances of Prussia, are constantly led to form exaggerated expectations, and to aim at objects beyond their reach. If it has been believed that we are not merely laying aside our weapons, but we are also willing to destroy them by legislative action, then we have been credited with a great piece of folly for which no statement of mine has ever given occasion."

Referring to the apprehensions expressed by Cardinal Jacobini, that any mere suspension of the May Laws at the discretion of the Ministry might with a change of Ministers bring back the old

order of things, Prince Bismarck replied that the same argument was applicable to any change occurring at Rome. "While one party retained his sword, the other must keep his ready in the scabbard." Hitherto the Pope had done nothing to prove the reality of his intentions, and so far as could be gathered from the attitude of the Clerical party in the Landtag and Reichsrath, their hostility to the Government, which a word from the Pope could have silenced, was in no way abated. When the Catholics in Parliament ceased their attacks on the Constitution, it would be time enough to discuss the complete repeal of the May Laws. The despatch concluded:—

"The intimation of final or other resolutions being contemplated at Rome makes no impression upon us. We have already borne the peril and unpleasantness contained in such threats, and we must continue to do as if the clergy chose to continue a course which is estranging them more and more from the Government and the country. The diminution of priests, the disappearance of Bishops, the absence of spiritual provision, fill us with sincerest sympathy for our Catholic countrymen. This is a matter for which the Church and the Pope are alone responsible. At other times and in other countries we have evidence of the Catholic clergy complying with far harder conditions than are asked of them in Prussia rather than leave their people without the consolations of religious assistance. If the present hierarchy raise their claims much higher, and prefer to deprive the faithful of their services to obeying the law of the land, then Church and State will have to give an account to God and history. My resolution that there shall be no return to such a state of things as grew up between 1840 and 1870 has not been due to any lack of disposition to please, but is the result of an unavoidable political necessity."

Although a further interchange of despatches took place between Prince Bismarck and Prince Reuss, the position of affairs was practically unaltered when, after the prorogation of the Reichsrath, the Prussian Landtag resumed its sittings on May 20. At its first meeting, Herr von Puttkamer, the Minister of Public Worship, at once laid before it the "Canossa Bill," which, whilst containing certain important concessions to the clergy and the Clerical party, retained the principle of the absolute supremacy of the State over all ecclesiastical functionaries. Monsignor Jacobini was at once instructed to convey to Prince Bismarck the Pope's disapproval of the permissive Bill, and to notify to him that the concessions made in the Papal brief to Archbishop Melcher of Cologne were withdrawn.

On May 29 the debate on the first reading of the Bill for Controlling and Amending the May Laws was opened by Herr von Puttkamer, who recited the history of the negotiations which had preceded, and explained the objects of the measure to be the re-establishment of ecclesiastical jurisdiction, the constant supply of parish priests, and a compromise of conflicting interests. Dr. Falk,

the author of the well-known May Laws, immediately followed, opposing all idea of concession, which he declared would be interpreted by Rome and the Ultramontanes as a victory. The boast would be made that the struggle against the State had succeeded, and that fresh demands would be met by further concessions, and the "taming of Prince Bismarck" would be preached from a thousand pulpits. Herr Windthorst declined to commit his party or the Papal authorities to any final vote, but he protested against the mutilated form in which the negotiations with the Holy See had been published. After two days' debate it was decided to refer the Bill to a Select Committee, composed of twenty-one members, six of whom, including one Pole, belonged to the Centre, eight to the United Conservatives, five to the National Liberals, and two to the Progressists. The committee began by altogether rejecting Article 1, which would, in certain circumstances, admit even foreigners into the Catholic Church in Germany, and greatly relax existing restrictions on the education of the clergy; in Article 3 a sentence was struck out which at once destroyed the sense of the whole; Article 4 was re-worded in a way that was most disagreeable to the Government; Article 7 was rejected; as to Article 8, no agreement could be come to, so that finally not only the paragraph itself, but all the proposed amendments thereof, had to be rejected. Finally, on a division, in consequence of an alliance between the Centre, the National Liberals, and the Progressists, the entire Bill was rejected by 13 votes to 8 in the Committee, although there was a majority in favour of certain individual clauses. Under these auspices it again came before the Landtag a week later (June 18) for second reading. A variety of amendments, the discussion of which occupied a week, were brought forward; one dispensing with the preliminary general education for the Catholic clergy, supported by Herr Reichensberger (Centre) on the ground that, as an aim of the May Laws was to change the convictions of the clergy, the Church could not accept such a prospect. Professor Gneist (Liberal) held that the State could not with dignity make advances to the Church. The Falk Laws were especially directed against the pretensions of the Papacy to make the Roman Catholic dependent on it instead of on the State. Herr von Puttkamer, Minister of Public Worship, combated the notion that the State wished to recede from its position or to ignore its responsibility. The House then voted on the clause, which was rejected by 206 votes against 180. On the following day, Article 2, which proposed to invest the chief civil authorities merely with the right of appealing against ecclesiastical decisions, was rejected; but Article 3, which permits the State to deprive offenders of their salaries without presuming to rescind their appointments, was carried. Article 4, the so-called Bishop's clause, containing the essence of the Bill, as under it the King was to have power to reinstate deposed prelates, gave rise to a long and bitter discussion, but was carried by 252 votes against 150, by the help of the Free Conservatives, who

obtained the substitution of the words "the State Ministry, with Royal approval," for the "King," as the clause was originally worded. Article 5, which dispensed with oaths and qualifications required by the May Laws from reappointed prelates, was also passed; as was Article 6, dealing with the administration of Church property by commissaries. The two next Articles with their amendments were rejected, as was Article 11, conferring on the State the right of appointing the chairman of the vestry in Catholic parishes; but the House agreed to the clauses exempting the bestowal of the Sacrament, the reading of the Mass, and the duties of the Confessional from the penal provisions of the May Laws, and that permitting the establishment of Catholic societies for the care of the sick and infirm, or for the education of children whose age did not come within the State limits; and finally passed by a large majority a clause added by the Committee limiting the duration of the law till January 1, 1882. The third reading occupied two days; and on June 28, after a preliminary clause regulating the official relations of the clergy towards education had been rejected by 198 to 197 votes, the Bill was finally passed by the meagre majority of four votes, 206 being given for it. The majority was made up of the united Conservative fractions, reinforced by 50 National Liberals; whilst the minority was composed of the Centre, the Progressists, the Poles, and about 40 National Liberals. In one sitting the Upper House disposed of the Bill without more than a few verbal amendments, and the following *résumé* shows the law as it now stands:—

- "1. A priest can no longer be unfrocked by a decree of the Ecclesiastical Court; that court can only declare a priest incapable of performing divine service in the limits of the Prussian monarchy, in which case he will receive no more salary from the State.
2. The Ministry will be empowered to allow that those dioceses from which the Bishops have been expelled be administered by delegates appointed by the Church authorities who have not taken the oath of allegiance, and who are not necessarily born Germans.
3. The Ministry has to settle whether the administration of the dioceses and of Church funds is to be given into the hands of the State authorities or not. The Ministry will also be empowered to remove such an administration.
4. The State can recommence payment for Church purposes.
5. A priest, although he has been appointed to a particular parish, can no longer be punished, as formerly, for performing divine service in another parish which is without a priest.
6. The Home Office is empowered to allow new orders which have in view the nursing of invalids and the education of children to be established within the frontiers of the Prussian monarchy; it is ordained, however, that these orders shall be under the direct supervision of the State authorities, and that they can be at any time abolished."

Modified by the Committee and mutilated by the House, the Bill differed in many important points from that introduced by the Government, and which was described as an express train to Canossa. Whether in its amended form it

deserves the epithet of a *Bummel-Zug*, for the same destination, the events of the next two years will show.

Although Prince Bismarck has so far been successful in carrying this important measure through the Prussian Parliament, there could have been but little in his triumph to console him for the rebuffs he had suffered in the Reichstag in the matter of the Government subvention to the Samoa Company—a project to revive by national funds the bankrupt house of Godeffroy, of Hamburg, which had once monopolised the South Sea Trade; and, again, in a further attempt to introduce a tobacco monopoly, for which the Chancellor was unable to obtain the support of more than a third of the Reichstag.

The Government enactments against usurers, however, met with more favour from the Reichstag, which, in spite of an attempt by Count William von Bismarck to fix the limits of non-usurious rates (8 per cent. on real and 15 per cent. on personal property), passed a short Bill, which is interesting as forming another instance of Prince Bismarck's constant anxiety to pose as the friend of the working classes, and to display a platonic weakness for certain socialistic nostrums. The following are the main provisions of the law:—"1. Whoever, taking advantage of the necessity, frivolity, or inexperience of another, obtains for himself or for a third person, in respect of a loan or arrear of payment due, a promise or an actual transfer of property exceeding in value the customary rate of interest to such a degree as to be strikingly disproportionate to the services rendered, shall be punished for usury by imprisonment for a maximum term of six months, and at the same time pay a fine not exceeding 150*l.* sterling. Loss of civil rights may also be pronounced against such usurer. 2. Whoever obtains, either for himself or for a third party, a promise of usurious advantages, either under veil or by bill of exchange, or under pledge of honour, or by oath, or under similar assurances, shall be imprisoned for the maximum term of one year, and at the same time pay a fine not exceeding 300*l.* sterling. The offender will be also liable to forfeiture of civil rights. 3. The same punishments shall be inflicted upon any one who, having a knowledge of the circumstances, acquires a claim of the character above described and disposes of the same, or realises the usurious advantages promised." Money-lenders will accordingly remain at liberty to make their own terms, the Government reserving the right to judge, according to circumstances, whether the same are usurious, and, if so, to inflict heavy punishments.

A resignation of Prince Bismarck must now be apparently accepted as a necessary incident of the year's history. It would, of course, be incorrect to describe this constantly recurrent decision, followed by its equally certain withdrawal, as meaningless or futile. On each occasion the Chancellor has had some specific object in view, which he did not see his way to obtain in any other fashion; and since the result of the manœuvre has always been

successful, there seems no reason why Prince Bismarck should be blamed for a method which found favour with Richelieu and the elder Pitt, as well as with Mazarin and Sir Robert Walpole. The cause of the Chancellor's ire this year was, it must be allowed, not unreasonable. The Bundesrath, which represents all that remains of the old Federal Diet, showed its origin in its constitution. The preponderance of the smaller States from 1815 had rendered the intrigues of Russia, Prussia, and Austria possible at Frankfurt; and such was the jealousy with which these States guarded their interests that in 1866 and again in 1871, when the new Empire supervened, their privileges and voting power were left untouched. Prussia in the new Bundesrath, of which she was practically both the head and the arm, was content with seventeen votes, the number she had possessed in the ancient Diet, leaving to the minor States the forty-one votes, by means of which they could there render all government impossible. On April 2 there came before the Bundesrath the trifling question whether post-office orders should be exempt from a receipt tax, which the Reichsrath was to be asked to ratify. Prussia, Bavaria, and Saxony, the three most important States in the Empire, numbering thirty-three millions of inhabitants, and representing twenty-eight votes in the Diet, were strongly opposed to such a proposal. The thirteen minor States, under the leadership of Wurtemberg, being able to command thirty votes, although they represented only an aggregate of seven and a half millions of inhabitants, opposed the vote and carried the exemption. It can scarcely be supposed that the present was a solitary instance of the obstacles which the German Chancellor had to encounter in working the Constitution. In fact, it was well known that on numerous matters, though hitherto of small importance, the delegates of the minor States had outvoted the proposals of Prussia, and the stamp tax was merely the battle-ground on which Prince Bismarck had determined to fight out the question. Three days after the vote of the Federal Council, and without a word of warning or apparent consultation with his colleagues, Prince Bismarck handed to the Emperor his resignation, pleading increasing ill-health as the cause. The Emperor's action was, however, as prompt and more decisive than his Chancellor's, for a few hours after receiving the latter's resignation, he refused to accept it in the following words:—

“To your petition of the 6th instant I reply to you that I do not at all underrate the difficulties in which you may be placed by a conflict of the duties imposed on you by the Imperial Constitution, with the responsibility attaching to you; but that I do not see myself thereby induced to relieve you of your office because of your believing it impossible for you in any one specific case to respond to the task accorded you by Articles 16 and 17 of the Imperial Constitution. I must, on the contrary, leave it to you to submit to me and to the Federal Council such proposals as are

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calculated to effect a Constitutional solution of a conflict of duties of the kind here in question.—Berlin, April 7, 1880.—(Signed) WILHELM.—To the Imperial Chancellor Fürst von Bismarck.”

With this the comedy ended as abruptly as it had commenced. Towards the end of the month Prussia presented to the Federal Council a long memorial on the order of business observed by that body. In order to preserve the authority of the Bundesrath Prussia wishes that all the leading Ministers of the various States should personally attend its deliberations, whenever new laws or ordinances are under discussion; that every bill should pass two readings in the Council unless forty-two out of the fifty-eight members concur to set aside this regulation; that the right of the representative of one State to appoint another to act as his proxy and to vote for him should be modified, and that the right of nominating a proxy should be reserved to the Chancellor of the Empire.

The Bundesrath took to heart with due submissiveness the lesson read them by the Chancellor, and speedily rescinded their former resolution by an overwhelming majority. Without absolutely accepting all the proposals of Prussia, they ultimately agreed that for all important measures emanating from the Presidential States there should be a second reading *in plenum*. With this virtual triumph Prince Bismarck remained satisfied; and beyond one or two appearances in the Prussian Landtag withdrew himself almost entirely from public view.

The Parliamentary recess was marked by the long-pending disruption of the National-Liberal party, which for the last ten years had submissively followed Prince Bismarck in all the wanderings of his foreign and home policy, and for his sake even had swallowed his Protectionist panacea for the commercial distress of the country. Herr Lasker, with a small body of friends, whom we designate as the discontented Whigs, formally seceded from the party, but in so half-hearted a fashion that their programme of Parliamentary government, free trade, and the May Laws failed to excite popular feeling in their cause, as their leader found when contesting a seat at Magdeburg, whilst their advances towards the Progressists met with no response from that party.

It is not clear how far this rupture, of which to outward observers the results were so insignificant, influenced Prince Bismarck in arriving at the unexpected decision to nominate himself to the Ministry of Commerce (Sept. 16). By some it was seriously argued that the Chancellor wished to utilise the socialistic movement for imperial or autocratic ends. The means by which he hoped to achieve this purpose were the revival of trade guilds or corporations, the extension of savings banks, supported by forced contributions from masters and workmen, State monopolies of tobacco, compulsory life insurance and State railways—in a word, all the devices by which more than one democratic empire had attempted to establish itself on a solid basis and had

failed. On the other hand, it seemed scarcely probable that if the Chancellor wished to retain any semblance of a party following in the Landtag or the Reichsrath he would have run so obvious a risk of alienating the Conservatives and National Liberals, who could still form a majority, in the illusory hope of being able to reconstitute a majority out of the discordant elements of which the minorities in both Chambers were composed. These are, however, questions of which the future can alone furnish the key. The first practical outcome of Prince Bismarck's tenure of office as Minister of Commerce, was the appointment by Royal decree (Nov. 19) of a Committee of Trade on Agriculture, whose functions it was to examine all economical questions, and to report on the needs of the country. The committee or council was to be formed of seventy-five members named for five years; of these, forty-five were to be chosen by the King for twice that number elected by the Chamber of Commerce, the trade corporations, and the Agricultural Associations. The remaining thirty, of whom at least one-half were to be actual working men, were to be selected by the Ministers of Commerce, Public Works, and Agriculture, and their names to be approved by the King.

The idea of extending the system of the Zollverein so as to include Austria-Hungary, the Danubian and Scandinavian States, and, if possible, Holland and Switzerland, which the German Chancellor is supposed to nurse, made but little progress during the year, in consequence of the difficulties arising from the antagonism between the rival productive tariffs of the two empires.

The origin of the *Judenhetz*, which to the disgrace of Liberal Germany has been recently allowed to occupy so prominent a place in home politics, can scarcely be attributed to any particular date. From the very commencement of the year the orthodox clergy of Berlin, under the leadership of Hofprediger Stöcker, seem to have done their utmost to excite public feeling against the Semitic race. The Ultramontane press gave its full approval to their comrade, and Professor Heinrich Von Treitschke, the eminent historian, justified it. His argument was that the internal state of Germany, in face of its widespread Socialism and its external policy, produced a condition of things which rendered the preponderance of the Jewish element a source of danger. According to the census of 1871 there were in Spain 6,000 Jews, in Italy 40,000, in France and Great Britain 45,000 each, but in Germany there were 512,000, and in Austria probably not far short of a million. In Prussia alone their number had increased from 124,000 in 1816 to 340,000 in 1875, of whom the majority were emigrants from Eastern Europe, representing the democracy of the race; whilst the Jews of Western Europe were descended for the most part from the aristocracy of the race which had found a home in Spain and Portugal. These arguments were combated with vigour by Professor Graetz and others, who maintained that if the Jews possessed more influence in Germany than elsewhere, it was because their mental capacities enabled them

there to obtain more marked distinction than elsewhere. During the summer more practical questions occupied the public mind, and the ill-feeling which had been aroused by Herr Stöcker's indiscreet utterances slumbered awhile. Towards the close of the autumn, however, it broke out again with increased intensity, and numerous breaches of the peace ensued, in which the Christians were not always the aggressors; and, at length, the question became a Parliamentary one.

On October 26 the Prussian Chambers had reassembled after the recess, and in the election of the officers of the Landtag the Ultramontanes had sustained an unexpected defeat. The Conservatives, who had hitherto voted with the Centre, split up into two portions—the more Liberal thus giving a lesson to the Ultramontanes who had refused to take part in the national festival of the completion of Cologne Cathedral. The reactionary fraction committed the further grave error of associating themselves with the anti-Semitic agitation, of which Herr Stöcker and Professor Henrici had constituted themselves the leaders. By their initiative a petition was laid before the Landtag praying that the movement of the Jewish population should be the subject of police reports; that only the lower places in the public service should be accessible to its members; and, further, that restraints should be placed by the Government on the Jewish immigration. The debate which ensued, whilst giving rise to much declamatory violence, led to no practical results, the members of the Government holding aloof from the discussion after having announced their determination not to permit the question of the civil rights of citizens of any religious denomination to be tampered with.

The Prussian Budget showed a very considerable increase on various heads of expenditure, that of the War Department alone being 30,310,588 marks (1,515,229*l.*) in excess of the previous year's estimates, but the hope of an equilibrium was held out, the deficit of previous years to be covered by an increase of the land and house tax and a fresh loan. But it was rather against the principle on which financial affairs were being managed that criticism was directed in the Landtag. This system consisted in augmenting the old or creating new imperial taxes, and paying back to the various States a certain portion of the excess. As Herr Richter pointed out, it was proposed to raise 240 millions of marks additional, of which 150 millions would have to be contributed by Prussia; while under the Finance Minister's proposal, seventy-eight millions only would be repaid to reduce the burden of the Prussian taxes, or in other words the taxpayer would have to pay his share of the 150 millions more as a German, and his share of 78 millions less as a Prussian.

CHAPTER III.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY—RUSSIA.

I. AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Austria and the Czech Movement—Change of Ministry—The Slav Influences and the German Alliance—The Emperor's Journey—The Eastern imbroglio—The Danube Navigation—Political Parties.

THE year began in Austria-Hungary with symptoms of agitation among the various nationalities of the monarchy. In Bohemia a movement was got up by the Czechs for the introduction of their language in schools and courts of justice; a similar movement was set on foot by the Ruthenians of Galicia; and some alarm was produced in the Italian districts of the monarchy by the agitation of the Italia Irridenta. These manifestations of nationalist feeling did not, however, lead to any serious results, and satisfactory explanations were given by the Italian Cabinet of the Irridentist demonstration at the funeral of General Avezzana. A more serious incident was the riot which took place in the streets of Buda-Pesth on January 14 and 16, in consequence of the duel between Count Maythenyi and M. Verhovay, in which the latter, a journalist, was severely wounded. The cause of this duel was an attack made on the Hungarian nobility, of which Count Maythenyi is a prominent member, in M. Verhovay's paper, and the bitter hostility shown by the people against the nobles in the riots that followed gave evidence of a class antagonism of a very dangerous kind.

In the Reichsrath some important debates took place on the grievances of the non-German nationalities, the "conciliation" Ministry having first been completed on February 17 by the appointment of Baron Conrad Eybesfeld, a constitutionalist, as Minister of Education, and of Baron Kriegsau, a Conservative, brother-in-law of the ex-Minister Bach, as Minister of Finance. The clerical members of the Reichsrath supported the petition of four Bohemian bishops, asking that the powers of control formerly possessed by the clergy over primary education might be resumed; the Czechs urged that the primary schools should give education in the language of the most numerous nationality of the district; while the Poles advocated the maintenance of the existing system of State control. After much discussion a series of resolutions was passed by the House on April 27, leaving to the Government the initiative of remedying the grievances of the Slav nationalities by laying before Parliament measures for increasing the endowments of non-German schools and teachers. A further concession

to the Slavs was an order issued by the Government to the administrative and judicial authorities in Bohemia, instructing them to make known their decisions in the language used by those applying for them, to issue notifications in the language of those to whom they are addressed, and to conduct criminal trials in the language of the accused. On June 11 another attempt was made by the Government to conciliate the Czechs. It has long been a matter of complaint with the Czechs that the number of representatives which, under the present system of election, they are able to send to the Bohemian Diet, is far below that to which they would be entitled if they were allowed as many representatives in proportion to their population as the Germans. The Government accordingly brought in a bill, nominally to improve the representation of the landowners (who in Austria have separate representatives of their own), but really to increase the number of the Czech members of the Diet. Under the existing system the Bohemian landowners are divided into two electoral bodies, one for entailed and the other for unentailed property; the first sends sixteen representatives to the Diet, and the second fifty-four. Under the Government bill the number of electoral bodies was to be increased to six, and the first of these, comprising the entailed properties and those paying above 10,000 florins in taxes, was to send thirty-two members to the Diet, the remaining thirty-eight being divided among the five other electoral bodies. The result of this arrangement would have been that the thirty-two seats of the first electoral body, and several of the others, would be assured to the Czechs, whose great aristocratic families hold most of the entailed properties, and also of the larger unentailed ones. As was to be expected, the bill was lost in committee by a majority of thirteen German to seven Czech votes; but the Ministry attained their object of demonstrating their wish to give the Slavs a larger share of political power in the monarchy than they have hitherto enjoyed. By so doing, however, they naturally alienated the German element; and it soon became evident that they could not long retain their composite character of representatives both of the German centralist party and of the Slavs, whose instinctive leaning is towards federalism. A new change of Ministry accordingly took place on June 27. Count Taaffe remained Prime Minister, but Dr. Stremayr and Barons von Horst, von Korb-Weidenheim, and von Kriegsau were succeeded in the departments of Justice, National Defence, Commerce, and Finance respectively by Baron von Streit, Count Welfersheimb, Herr von Cremer-Auenrode, and Dr. Dunayevski. The most significant of the new appointments was that of the Minister of Finance: Dr. Dunayevski is the ablest and most energetic member of the Polish section of the Reichsrath, and is regarded as one of the most formidable of the adversaries of the German centralist party. This appointment showed that Count Taaffe had given up his original idea of forming a "middle" party in the House, and

that he would now look chiefly for support to the autonomist majority.

The line thus openly adopted by the Ministry gave great offence to the Hungarians as well as to the Austrian Germans. Threats were even uttered by the chief members of the old Déak party, which had been mainly instrumental in bringing about the dualist system, to the effect that if federalism were to gain ground as a principle of government in Cisleithania, they would begin an agitation in Hungary with the object of making that country entirely independent of Austria, the only link connecting them being that of a common sovereign and army. These utterances, which could hardly be seriously meant, at least testified to the profound dissatisfaction with which the Hungarians viewed the development of a policy of concession towards the Slavs. The Government, however, felt that the position of affairs abroad had become so critical that it could no longer afford to ignore the wants of its Slavonic subjects. The continued agitation in Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia, the pressure put by Europe upon the Porte and its obstinate resistance, and the war preparations of Montenegro and Greece, all portended a new convulsion in the Balkan peninsula, the result of which would probably be the disruption of the Turkish Empire—a result which concerned Austria-Hungary more nearly than any of the other Powers. The union in a single state of the Bulgarians would be a very dangerous precedent for similar claims on the part of Servia and Roumania, which could not be satisfied without depriving Austria-Hungary of large and important portions of her territory, Transylvania being inhabited by Roumanians, and Croatia and Dalmatia by peoples of a race akin to the Servian. Moreover, the encouragement and assistance which the Bulgarian agitators received from Russia showed that the Government of St. Petersburg, notwithstanding its anxieties at home, was steadily pursuing its old policy of intrigue among the Christian nationalities of Turkey, with a view to ultimately inheriting the throne of Constantinople. The success of such a policy would place Austria at the feet of Russia; or rather, as one might say with General Fadeyeff, the way to Constantinople for Russia lies through Vienna, and the break-up of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy would be a necessary preliminary to the subjugation by Russia of the Balkan peninsula. As a military power, Austria has not much to fear from Russia. Though her army is not so numerous as that of the Czar, she can bring into the field troops which would be quite equal in strength, and probably superior in efficiency, to any that she would have to encounter in the case of a Russian invasion; besides which she would certainly have the support of Germany, which consideration in itself renders the contingency of a direct Russian attack upon Austria very improbable. But Russia has at her command, as against Austria, weapons far more dangerous than those of war. Panslavism is latent in most of the Slavonic provinces of the

monarchy, and if a chain of Slavonic states were established on the Balkan, it would probably not be difficult to seduce discontented Slavs from their allegiance to the House of Hapsburg; and a successful Panslavist insurrection in Austria-Hungary would mean the disruption of the monarchy, for it would deprive her of her richest provinces, and the majority of her population.

Such considerations, notwithstanding the great value justly attached by the Emperor Francis Joseph to the German and Hungarian elements in his empire, naturally led him and his Government to give more attention than had hitherto been the case to the demands of his Slavonic subjects; and the favourable impression produced by the concessions made in this respect by the Ministry was heightened by a series of visits made by the sovereign to the Slavonic provinces. In Bohemia, notwithstanding the feud between the German and Czechish inhabitants, his reception was most enthusiastic, and the two nationalities vied with each other in demonstrations of loyalty. The Emperor, on his side, did all in his power to reconcile and promote peace between them, and was scrupulously impartial in the marks of distinction he conferred upon their leaders and their chief public institutions. After visiting Bohemia and Moravia in June, the Emperor proceeded in the beginning of September to Galicia. That province is inhabited by two branches of the Slavonic race: the Ruthenian, which is the more numerous, and is chiefly prevalent in Eastern Galicia, and the Polish, which is predominant in Western Galicia. Until some twenty years ago the Ruthenians had no distinct political individuality, having for three centuries been part of the Polish kingdom much in the same way as Scotland is part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and, after the destruction of Polish independence, having continued to act with the Poles in all political questions. Their history and literature are Polish, but they have a distinct religion, the United Greek, which, after a union of nearly four hundred years, has divided the Polish and Ruthenian nationalities in Galicia* into two antagonistic elements. In the days when German centralism was predominant in the Austrian Empire, Herr von Schmerling, who was then Prime Minister, attempted to break the resistance of the non-German nationalities by playing them off against each other, and he accordingly encouraged the Ruthenians to send their own deputies to the central Parliament, and to demand similar privileges for their own nationality to those which were enjoyed by the Poles. In a word, Herr von Schmerling, as was wittily said at the time, "invented" the Ruthenian nationality in order to worry the Poles; and what this so-called nationality was composed of was shown by the fact that all the deputies sent by the Ruthenians to Vienna were either peasants or priests—the Ruthenian nobles, professional men, journalists, &c., who abound in Galicia, all

* In Russian Poland no differences exist between the Poles and the Ruthenians, as they are united against their common enemy, the Russian Government.

declaring themselves to be Poles. After the disappearance of the centralist *régime*, and the establishment of a constitution more in accordance with the position and claims of the various nationalities in the monarchy, the fiction of a distinct Ruthenian nationality was dropped; the Polish language was introduced in the schools, the Government offices, and the courts of justice, a Polish academy of sciences was founded at Cracow under the patronage of the Emperor, and a Polish Minister for Galician affairs was admitted to the Cabinet at Vienna. Never did the Poles, even in the most palmy days of their independence, enjoy more freedom or prosperity than they do now under the Austrian rule in Galicia; and they gladly seized the opportunity of the Emperor's visit to manifest their gratitude for the benefits he had conferred upon them. The festivities which took place on this occasion were on an unprecedented scale of magnificence. The members of the old Polish aristocracy flocked in crowds to Lemberg to do honour to their sovereign, and large sums were subscribed by wealthy Polish citizens to charitable and educational institutions in commemoration of the Emperor's visit. The Emperor responded with his usual graciousness and tact to this striking outburst of national enthusiasm; and though every care was taken, both by the Government and the people themselves, to prevent the demonstration from assuming an anti-Russian character, the lesson which it taught was undoubtedly such as to impress Russia with a sense of the dangers she might incur if she adopted a policy hostile to Austria. The Ruthenians, whose antagonism to the Poles had long been skilfully worked upon by Russian agents with a view to converting them into the tools of Russian policy, relapsed into complete insignificance before this great manifestation of Galician loyalty; the people of Galicia, four millions in number, rose up as one man to welcome their Emperor; and the contrast of their freedom and contentedness with the despotism under which their countrymen under the Russian rule were suffering could not fail to show the Government of St. Petersburg on which side would be the sympathies of its Polish subjects in the event of an Austro-Russian war.

In an empire like that of Austria-Hungary, with populations differing so radically from each other in language, religion, and race, and only kept together by their loyalty to the ruling dynasty, the internal policy of the Government must necessarily be swayed to a very great extent by considerations of foreign policy. Baron Haymerle, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, does not possess the showy qualities of his two predecessors. He is not a brilliant statesman like Count Beust, nor a skilful diplomatist like Count Andrassy; but he is free from the antiquated traditions of statesmanship which somewhat cloud Count Beust's perception of the currents of public feeling, and his industry and business capacity enable him to take a solid grasp of important questions which Count Andrassy was too apt to treat with the levity and inaccuracy

of an amateur. In the Eastern Question Baron Haymerle's policy, as explained by himself to the delegations in November, was sensible and practical. He was opposed from the beginning to the coercion of Turkey, but fearing that if Austria did not participate in the naval demonstration, she might not be in a position to check further proceedings of some of the Powers that might be injurious to her interests, he accepted England's proposals on the understanding that no troops should be landed, and no hostile action taken towards the Turks. At the same time he reserved for Austria similar rights of maritime and sanitary police at Dulcigno to those which she already possessed in the Montenegrin harbour of Antivari, under the Treaty of Berlin. As to the general aims of his policy in the East, they would be "the maintenance of the balance of power among the populations of the Balkan peninsula, and the preservation of the balance of influence among the great European Powers." He would always endeavour to maintain friendly relations with neighbouring States; but if any such State were to take up a position of antagonism, Austria "would have to make her influence as a nation felt." He added, with regard to Greece, that he had always looked upon the Greek nationality as a civilising and reforming element in the Balkan peninsula. The new Turco-Greek frontier, which had been agreed to at Berlin, must not, however, be considered as unchangeable, and the Powers were under no definite obligation to enforce its acceptance by the Porte. Nevertheless, the Government of Austria-Hungary "thought it right, in the interest of the monarchy, to have recourse to such moderate measures as would, when the occasion offered, and without injury to Austrian interests, ensure the due recognition of the importance of the Hellenic element."

The Power whose alliance would be of the greatest value to Austria, in view of the dangers with which she is threatened by the Pan Slavists and the Italian Iridentists, is Germany, and the friendly understanding established between the two countries after the war of 1866, was maintained in all important respects during the year 1880. In the delicate negotiations relative to the naval demonstration, the accord between Prince Bismarck and Baron Haymerle was complete; and Germany gave valuable support to Austria in the question of the Danubian Commission, to which we shall refer later. The jealousy with which the enterprising German element is viewed by the other nationalities in Austria, gave rise to some violent anti-German demonstrations at Prague and at Pesth, but these were rather directed against the Austrian Germans than against the German Empire. Most politicians in both halves of the monarchy are now agreed in approving the policy of an alliance with Germany; and it is only a few rigid Conservatives of the old school, like Baron Hübner, who still look upon Austria as the natural ally of the despotic States of Europe, and advocate co-operation with Russia. The sovereigns of the two empires, both exercising immense influence through the devoted attachment with

which they are regarded by their subjects, also did their part towards cementing the alliance between them. At the Court of Vienna the Archduke Albert and some other eminent generals are known to have Russian leanings, but the Emperor Francis Joseph takes every opportunity of expressing his sympathy with Germany and its ruler. The warm congratulations which he addressed to Count Moltke on his birthday gained him much popularity with the German people, and an equally favourable impression was produced in Austria by the hearty reception given in September to the Crown Prince, Archduke Rudolph, by the court and the people of Berlin on the occasion of his visit to that capital. An indiscreet remark made by the Crown Prince on this occasion in a conversation with Lord Houghton, to the effect that Austria need not necessarily prevent Russia from going to Constantinople, as in that event she would sufficiently protect her interests by taking Salonica, seems to have been regarded at Berlin as indicating a possible change in Austrian policy, the effect of which might be to isolate Germany as regards Russia and France; but though this produced a slight coldness between the two states, it had no material effect on their mutual relations, which soon again became as friendly as before. Among other signs of the firmness of the Austro-German alliance may be mentioned the fact that while in the budget laid by the Minister for War in November before the delegations large sums were demanded and granted for strengthening the fortifications of Cracow and Przemysl on the Russian frontier, and those of the provinces bordering on Italy, it was at the same time announced that the works of Königgrätz, on the frontier of Germany, are no longer to be kept in repair.

Of the questions of foreign politics which, though possessing a subordinate interest for Europe, were of great importance to Austria, the chief were the Danubian question, and that of the commercial relations of Austria with Servia. The Danubian question arose from the new territorial arrangements made by the Treaty of Berlin. A committee, presided over by the Austrian members of the European Danube Commission, having been instructed by the Commission to draw up, in conformity with the 55th article of the Treaty, rules for the navigation, the police, and the inspection of the river from the Iron Gates to Galatz, the committee prepared a report in which it recommended the establishment at Rustchuk of a mixed Commission of the riparian states, viz., Austria-Hungary, Roumania, Servia, and Bulgaria, to superintend the execution of the rules referred to. The committee further proposed that Austria-Hungary should preside in this Commission, and should have the casting vote in the event of the votes on each side in any question being equal. This proposal seemed at first sight equitable enough, as Austria-Hungary, being more interested than any other Power in removing any impediments to the free navigation of the Danube, would not be likely to vote for any measure not calculated to promote that object. It was

represented, however, in quarters hostile to Austria, that the proposal was really an attempt on the part of that Power to secure the monopoly of the navigation of the Danube, and the other riparian states consequently objected to it. A series of delicate negotiations followed, which were not terminated at the end of the year, but several of the Great Powers have already expressed the opinion that the proposed arrangement would be an advantageous one both for the interests of the riparian states and of Europe generally. In the Servian question a conflict took place between the Cabinets of Vienna and Belgrade which almost produced a diplomatic rupture. The question at issue was whether Serbia is bound to extend to Austro-Hungarian importers the same treatment as is secured to English goods by the commercial treaty between Serbia and England. By the 37th article of the Treaty of Berlin it was stipulated that until fresh agreements are made, no change is to take place in the commercial relations of Serbia with foreign countries, and that the privileges and immunities of foreign subjects shall remain untouched. At the date of the treaty the commercial relations of Serbia with Austria were regulated by a commercial convention entered into with Turkey in 1862 on the basis of "the most favoured nation" clause; and Baron Haymerle therefore held that if Austrian traders were less favourably treated by Serbia than those of any other country, this would be a breach of treaty obligations. M. Ristics, the Prime Minister of Serbia, argued, in opposition to this view, that Serbia could not be justly bound by the acts of the Porte, and that, so long as no special convention on the subject existed between Austria and Serbia, Austria had no right to claim for her subjects the rights which Serbia had agreed by treaty to grant to the subjects of other states. At length, after a long and angry controversy, Baron Haymerle despatched (October 14) a note to Belgrade demanding "a formal and explicit recognition that the treatment on the footing of the most favoured nation belongs, without any restrictions whatever," to Austria-Hungary, and threatening, in the event of non-compliance with this demand, to apply "such other measures as the imperial and royal Government may deem useful for the efficacious defence of their interests." This peremptory despatch speedily produced the desired effect. M. Ristics resigned, a new Ministry was appointed at Belgrade, and on November 10 M. Marinovics arrived at Pesth, as the Servian plenipotentiary, to give the declaration asked for in the note referred to, and to prepare the way for an understanding with regard to the conclusion of a commercial treaty between the two states.

In October the German constitutionalists renewed their attacks upon the home policy of the Taaffe Ministry. After a preliminary conference at Carlsbad, whose proceedings the Ministry imprudently attempted to withdraw from publication by confiscating the newspapers in which they first appeared, a meeting, attended by about 3,000 persons, was held on November 14 at Vienna, to protest

against federalist tendencies, and to call upon all the Germans in the monarchy to unite in opposing the policy of the Government. None of the chiefs of the party, however, were present, and the meeting seemed rather a demonstration of the Germans in Bohemia and Moravia than of those in the empire generally. This view was to some extent confirmed by the fact that an equally large meeting of German Conservatives was held a week after (November 22) at Linz, to express entire confidence in the Government policy. At the beginning of December further demonstrations were made by the constitutionalists on the occasion of the hundredth anniversary of the accession of the Emperor Joseph, and in the Reichsrath they violently attacked the Government for having placed the German and Czech languages in Bohemia on an equal footing; but they were too weak in numbers to bring the question to a division with any prospect of success. In the debate on the budget, however, they brought forward a motion adverse to the Government (December 14): some of their ablest financiers spoke on this occasion, but their passionate denunciation of the Ministerial policy was skilfully replied to by the Minister of Finance, and the motion was rejected by a majority of thirty-seven. The conflict was renewed on the Bosnian railway question on the day that the Reichsrath separated for the Christmas holidays (December 19), when a scene of obstruction occurred similar to those which have taken place in our own Parliament of late years. The House sat for sixteen hours, and broke up at four o'clock in the morning, after a heated debate in which the constitutionalists were once more signally defeated, though they made every effort to tire out the House by long and irrelevant speeches. Altogether, the state of affairs at the close of the year was not promising for the Taaffe Ministry. Count Taaffe can disregard the hostility of the Left, bitter as it is, so long as he is sure of his majority; but his supporters represent many different interests in the State, which cannot always be reconciled with each other, and the Czechs already complain that he has not gone nearly so far in the way of concession to their demands as they were led to expect that he would when he formed his Cabinet.

II. RUSSIA.

The Nihilist Programme—Attempt on the Winter Palace—Dictatorship of Count Melikoff—Negotiations with China—Compromise with the Vatican.

The beginning of the year was signalised in Russia by some incidents which were looked upon as the precursors of a more Liberal *régime*. Count Valuyeff, a polished courtier, with a leaning towards the civilisation of Western Europe, was appointed President of the Committee of Ministers, and there was some talk

of intended concessions to the Poles, which, however, could hardly be reconciled with the publication of a decree on January 16 prohibiting the use of the Polish language in girls' schools at Warsaw. Numerous arrests and prosecutions of Nihilists, too, continued to take place in all parts of the empire, and a considerable number of officers of the army were imprisoned on account of their connection with the Nihilist organisation. On January 29 a number of Nihilists and others concerned in the great robbery of 2,000,000 roubles from the Imperial Treasury chest at Kherson for revolutionary purposes, were convicted by the military tribunal at Odessa. Among them were three ladies, who took the chief part in the robbery; one, the Baroness Vitten, was sentenced to penal servitude for life; another was a sister of the Red Cross Society who had greatly distinguished herself in nursing the sick and wounded during the war, and a third was the daughter of a lieutenant-general. The following day (January 30) the secret printing-press of the revolutionary organ, *Narodnaya Vola*, was discovered by the police, who broke into the house where it was worked after a desperate struggle, in which one of the occupants was killed and the police superintendent wounded. Nearly the whole of the third issue of the paper, containing the programme of the Executive Committee, was captured by the police. This document stated that the only way to obtain reforms was to overthrow the Government by revolution or conspiracy; that power should then be transferred to an Assembly of Organisation, elected by all Russians without distinction of class or property; and that the following reforms should be submitted to that assembly:—

1. Permanent popular representation, with full power over all general questions of State.
2. Extensive local self-government, with officials elected by the people.
3. Each rural commune to have independent powers of administration over its own affairs, including all financial matters.
4. Adoption of the principle that the land is the property of the people.
5. Transfer of all works and factories to working men.
6. Complete liberty of conscience, speech, the press, association, and electoral agitation.
7. Universal suffrage.
8. Replacement of the standing army by a territorial army.

A few days after (February 5) another attempt was made on the life of the Czar, this time in his own palace. About seven o'clock in the evening, just as the Czar was proceeding with the Duchess of Edinburgh and other members of his family to the dining-room in the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg, an explosion, supposed to have been produced by dynamite, took place in a cellar below a guard-room which was situated on the next floor to that of the dining-room. Ten soldiers of the Finland regiment, who were at that time in the guard-room, were killed by the explosion, and about fifty wounded, but the dining-room was only slightly damaged. The boldness of this attempt, and the evidence which it afforded of the inefficiency of the police, produced great consternation in St. Petersburg, and induced the Emperor to take

a step almost unprecedented in history. By an ukase dated February 12 (24), he announced that, being "firmly decided to put an end to the repeated attempts of audacious malefactors to disturb the State and social order in Russia," he had appointed a Supreme Executive Commission, with Count Loris Melikoff as its chief, and members to be nominated by him personally, "for the preservation of State order and social tranquillity." The Count was to enjoy supreme authority in St. Petersburg and its suburbs, and supreme jurisdiction as regards State offences in all other parts of the empire; and all demands made by him were to be at once complied with "by the local authorities, governors-general, governors, and prefects, as also by all branches of the service, not excepting the military." His orders and instructions, "when he deemed it necessary," were to be received immediately from the Emperor; in other cases he was himself to "promulgate all orders, and adopt all measures which he shall consider necessary for the preservation of State order and social tranquillity," and "define and exact the penalties to be inflicted for non-compliance with and non-execution of such orders and measures." This appointment produced a very reassuring effect on the Russians, Count Melikoff having established a great reputation for ability and tact by his administration of the government of Kharkoff; and for a time nothing more was heard of the Nihilists. A dreaded anniversary—March 2, the date of the Emperor Alexander's accession to the throne—passed away, the Nihilists making no sign; but on the afternoon of the day following, a man fired at Count Melikoff with a revolver as he was alighting from his carriage at the entrance of his official residence. The assassin, Mlodetzky, was at once captured, and hanged March 5. A Nihilist proclamation was at the same time circulated, expressing regret at the escape of the Czar, and a determination not to desist from the struggle until the Emperor should deposit his power in the hands of the people. More Nihilist trials followed, the most important of which was that (May 18) of Dr. Weimar, an eminent physician of St. Petersburg, and ten of his accomplices, most of whom were well known among the aristocracy of the capital. Dr. Weimar, who was decorated with five orders, one of which was conferred upon him for his efforts on behalf of the wounded in the Russo-Turkish war, was found guilty of having furnished the assassin Solovieff with the pistol fired by the latter at the Czar, and also of having provided the carriages in which the assassins of General Mezentzeff made their escape; and the others all proved to have been more or less connected with the revolutionary organisation. This trial showed, what had been suspected before, that the Nihilists had accomplices in the highest ranks of society; but the horror produced throughout the nation by the attempt in the Winter Palace, and the vigilance and skill with which Count Melikoff pursued the revolutionists, seem for the time to have paralysed them. Nor did he confine his efforts to the preservation of order; he also,

without treading the dangerous path of radical reform, introduced a new system of rule which made him very popular in the country. He first directed his attention to the universities, which had been the hotbeds of Nihilism, and he relaxed in many respects those draconic laws fettering the liberty of the students, which had driven so many of them to the desperate alternative of suicide or sedition. This important change was followed by the resignation of Count Tolstoi, author of the laws in question, on May 3, and the appointment in his place of M. Sabouroff. Count Tolstoi was called "the promoter of Nihilism in spite of himself," on account of his practice of expelling students from the universities for trifling offences, thereby ruining their career and driving them into Nihilism; while M. Sabouroff, who as curator of the university of Dorpat had acquired a great reputation for tact in the management of youth, strove on the other hand to render cases of expulsion as rare as possible by giving the students greater liberty, and thereby diminishing the provocatives to rebellion. The same system was adopted by Count Melikoff with regard to the nation generally; several political offenders were pardoned, others had their sentences commuted, others again were let off with a reprimand after an interview with the Count, in which the latter endeavoured by argument and persuasion to convince them of the folly of their conduct. Pacification and conciliation were the leading ideas of the new policy.

The Emperor, who appeared completely broken down, both mentally and physically, since the attempt in the Winter Palace, did not interfere in the slightest degree with the dictator's proceedings; and the government, being now in the hands of a man of resolute will, became, while far more autocratic than it had been under the weak and vacillating Alexander II., also a much more effective machine for the eradication of the evils from which the State had been suffering so long.

It was too great an anomaly, however, to retain Count Melikoff as dictator while the Emperor remained the nominal sovereign of Russia. The arrangement was necessarily a temporary one, and on August 20 an ukase was issued placing the administration of the country on a more normal footing. The object, according to this document, of the appointment of Count Melikoff with extraordinary powers as chief of a supreme executive commission was to put an end to the attempts of evil-doers to subvert the Government and social order in Russia. This object had, by the concentration of all the powers of the State in combating the spirit of sedition, been so far attained that the maintenance of social order could now be effected by ordinary legal means, with some extension of the jurisdiction of the Minister of the Interior. The Czar had, therefore, decided as follows: First, that the supreme executive commission be abolished, and its functions transferred to the Ministry of the Interior. Second, that the third section of the Imperial Chancellery (the department of the secret police) be also

abolished, and a special department formed in the Ministry of the Interior to conduct the affairs hitherto dealt with by the third section, pending the fusion of all the police offices of the empire in one department of the above Ministry. Third, that the corps of gendarmes be placed under the direction of the Minister of the Interior as its chief. Fourth, that the governor-general and other authorities, in cases where under the ukase of February 24 they had to refer to the chief of the supreme commission, shall in future address themselves to the Minister of the Interior, to whom is given the supreme direction in the treatment of all offences against the State. It will be seen from the terms of this ukase that although the post of chief of the supreme executive commission had been nominally abolished, most of its functions were transferred to the Minister of the Interior; and the latter appointment was conferred upon Count Melikoff on the same date as that of the ukase, so that in fact he was retained as the chief adviser of the Emperor under another name. The Russian Liberals, always on the alert for some indication of approaching reforms, attached a further significance to the ukase which it did not really possess. They inferred from the abolition of the detested "third section"—the arbitrary tool of the caprices of emperors and high officials in Russia—that the system of secret imprisonment and banishment without trial would cease, and they looked upon this as the first step towards the grant of a constitution. Their rejoicings, however, were premature. The secret police, though placed under the Minister of the Interior, retained all its former functions, and was maintained at its former strength; banishments to Siberia were as frequent as ever, and no sign was given by the Government of any desire to grant free institutions to its subjects. Even the press, though it was allowed to discuss public questions with somewhat more freedom than before, was warned by Count Melikoff to take care not to publish anything that might be displeasing to the Government; and a new journal, the *Rosya*, which, on the faith of the expected reforms, was started as a Liberal organ, was speedily punished for criticism of the Ministry by the prohibition of its sale in the streets. Count Melikoff, in a word, had been appointed to put down Nihilism, not to make reforms; and like a true soldier he punctually executed his task. He not only succeeded in putting an end to Nihilist outrages, but captured the principal agents of the Nihilist conspiracy. Sixteen persons, including three women, were tried in November for complicity in the murder of Prince Krapotkin, and the three attempts to assassinate the Czar. This trial showed that most of the Nihilist outrages had been committed by a band composed of a few persons who seemed to have but little connection with the general body of Nihilists. Two of the accused were hanged on November 16; the rest were sentenced to hard labour for life. It is remarkable that although during the autumn and winter there was terrible distress in Russia, owing to the bad

harvest, the country was in a state of profound tranquillity. In many districts there was only one-third of the ordinary crop of rye, and the Russians had to import articles which they usually grow in their own country for export, such as grain, tallow, and wool. In order to alleviate the distress of the agricultural population, and to supply the deficiency thereby caused in the revenue, the new Minister of Finance, M. Abasa, who in November succeeded General Greigh, took off the duty on salt, and added ten per cent. to the duties imposed on all other goods, at the same time raising the warehousing charges and the licence duties on trades.

In foreign affairs the history of the year in Russia was comparatively uneventful. When the Empress died on June 3, it was rumoured that the Emperor would marry the Princess Dolgorouky, who had for some time been an inmate of the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg, and that he would then abdicate and be succeeded by the Czarevitch, whose views on foreign policy are believed to differ in some important respects from those of his father. But though the Czar married the Princess Dolgorouky in July, he did not abdicate, and no change took place in the relations of Russia with the other European Powers. Some anxiety was caused at the beginning of the year by the refusal of the Chinese Government to ratify the Treaty of Livadia, on the plea that its ambassador had exceeded his powers in leaving the most fertile portion of the Kuldja valley and some of the important passes over the Tian-shan in the hands of the Russians, and in imposing on China the payment of a large sum by way of indemnity. Chung How, the ambassador referred to, was degraded, but the Chinese Government showed its readiness to arrive at a pacific solution of the difficulty by despatching another envoy, Marquis Tseng, to St. Petersburg, where he arrived on August 3 to resume the negotiations on the subject. Meanwhile Russian troops were despatched by land and water to Eastern Siberia: it was evident, however, that neither Power wished to fight, and that each merely aimed at obtaining as much as it could from the other by a demonstration of military force. Russia, too, was concerned in maintaining her prestige in Central Asia, which had been considerably shaken by the victories of the British troops in Afghanistan. She gained her point so far that Chung How, who was imprisoned and sentenced to death by the Chinese Government, was liberated at her demand; the negotiations with Marquis Tseng, too, were concluded at the end of the year; and it was hoped at St. Petersburg that China would ultimately accept the Russian terms. The attempts of the Russians to subdue the Turcomans had also as yet not produced any satisfactory result. There was no disaster such as that which occurred to the expedition of General Lomakin last year; but General Skobeleff, his successor, notwithstanding his high reputation as a dashing soldier, did not gain any important advantage over his adversaries. The active operations of the force under his command were at first confined

to an advance on the fortified position of Beourma, and a not very successful reconnaissance towards Geok Tepe, which was occupied by a large body of Turcomans. Several months were afterwards occupied in collecting stores, in strengthening the lines of communication by the Attrek valley and across the desert to Krasnovodsk, and in obtaining reinforcements from the Caucasus. A new feature in Central Asian warfare was the construction of a railway from Krasnovodsk to Kizil Arvat, and thence through the desert to the Kuren Dag, in order to facilitate the conveyance of troops and supplies. By the end of November a considerable portion of this railway was completed, and on December 19 a further advance was made on the south by the occupation of Ketel-i-Nadia, close to the Persian frontier, after a severe engagement between the Turcomans and a body of Russian cavalry under Colonel Narotsky. The Russians had thus established a footing in the country, but their adversaries had also not been idle. Eight thousand Merv Turcomans, with two pieces of artillery, marched to reinforce the garrison of Geok Tepe, and the whole of the Akhal population was called to arms.

The only remaining important incident in the foreign politics of Russia during the year was the acceptance by the Cabinet of St. Petersburg of the compromise signed on October 31 by the Russian ambassador and the Papal nuncio. Since the last Polish insurrection, in which nearly the whole of the Roman Catholic clergy in Poland was on the side of the insurgents, the Russian Government has refused to recognise the authority of the Pope even in the ecclesiastical affairs of its Roman Catholic subjects; many of the Polish clergy, including the Archbishop of Warsaw, were banished to Siberia; the affairs of the Roman Catholic Church in Poland were placed under the control of a commission at St. Petersburg, and an active propaganda was set on foot with the object of bringing the Roman Catholic population of Lithuania and the kingdom of Poland within the fold of the Russian Church. These measures, however, only increased the detestation still felt for the Russian Government by a large majority of the Polish nation, and the enthusiastic demonstrations of loyalty with which the Emperor of Austria was received by the Poles on his visit to Galicia seem to have induced the authorities at St. Petersburg to try the effect on its own Polish subjects of a policy of conciliation, at least so far as their religious affairs were concerned. The actual terms of the agreement were not made known, but it was understood that the vacant sees in Poland would in future be filled up by the Pope, as was the case before the insurrection of 1863.

CHAPTER IV.

TURKEY AND THE MINOR STATES OF EASTERN EUROPE.

Bulgaria—Servia—Turkey—Internal Condition—Mr. Goschen's Mission—The Albanian League—Roumelia—Montenegro—Greece—Armenia.

THE first events of the year in Eastern Europe showed how profound was the disorganization caused in that region by the Russo-Turkish war of 1878. In Bulgaria the National Assembly was dissolved by Prince Alexander, owing to the impossibility of obtaining a Ministry which should command a majority. A violent and prolonged electoral agitation followed, and the result of the elections, which terminated February 1, was that the "national" party, so called because the avowed object of its policy was the union of all the Bulgarians in a single state, obtained a large majority. The Prince, who seemed glad of an opportunity of obtaining a brief respite from the arduous duties of government, went on January 25 to St. Petersburg to attend the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the accession of the Czar, and on his return he appointed a Ministry, with M. Zancoff at its head, composed of men of the predominant party in the assembly, all of whom had received their education in Russia. In his speech from the throne on reopening the Assembly the Prince drew a very unsatisfactory picture of the state of the country. Brigandage was prevalent, he said, in the eastern districts; the finances were in a most unfavourable condition, 1,200,000*l.* being due to Russia, besides the as yet unfixed Turkish tribute, while the whole revenue amounted to 760,000*l.* only; and the sources of revenue were daily diminishing in consequence of the departure from the country of all Turks who could afford to do so. The new Bulgarian state, in a word, was far from being so prosperous as Bulgaria was under the rule of Midhat Pasha; and if the Bulgarians were certainly more free and less heavily taxed, their Turkish fellow-subjects were barbarously ill-treated. This intolerance of the Bulgarians towards other races was especially shown in Eastern Roumelia, which, like its neighbour, suffered from a chronic deficit in the treasury and disorder in the administration. On January 6, the Greek church of St. Petka, at Philippopolis, was seized by the Bulgarian militia, and was only restored to the Greeks after strong representations had been made to the East Roumelian Government by the English and French consuls. Bulgarian priests excommunicated the Greeks from the pulpit, and cases frequently occurred of Greek traders and wealthy landowners being beaten and robbed by Bulgarians. Many of these outrages

were committed by the so-called "gymnastic societies," which were really companies and battalions of volunteers under another name, their exercises being limited almost entirely to the use of the rifle and military drill. These societies marched about in military squadrons, firing their rifles, and often displaying the Russian flag. As for the Mahomedan population, it was persecuted by the Bulgarians even more than the Greek. The Turkish mosques and schools were destroyed, and the East Roumelian Government seemed powerless to restrain even its own soldiers: in the Kirdjali district, where a Mahomedan rising took place in February, the movement was suppressed by the Bulgarian militia, led by Russian officers, with a savage cruelty which recalled the horrible details of the massacre of Batak. Twenty-four Turkish villages were plundered and partly destroyed, and of their inhabitants many men were killed and women outraged.

The external relations of the new Bulgarian principality were almost as unsatisfactory as its condition at home. Repeated complaints having been made by the Roumanian residents at Rustchuk of the treatment to which they were subjected by the Bulgarian authorities there, the Roumanian consul complained to the governor, who replied in an insulting letter, which was shown by M. Stourdza, the political agent of Roumania at Sofia, to Prince Alexander. The latter sharply reprimanded the governor, but no redress was given to the Roumanians at Rustchuk. This created a bitter feeling between the two peoples, which was still further increased by another incident. In May some armed Turkish bands appeared in Bulgaria, and it was alleged that they had come from the Dobrudja, and had been formed with the connivance of the Roumanian authorities. This produced so violent a display of hostility to Roumania, both in the Assembly and the press of Bulgaria, that the Roumanian agent threatened to break off diplomatic relations between the two countries. He was dissuaded, however, from taking this step by the Bulgarian Government; but seeing that the attacks upon Roumania continued, he left Bucharest, and the Roumanian Foreign Minister notified to the Bulgarian Government that the reason of M. Stourdza's recall "on leave" was "the continued hostility shown by the Government towards Roumania, which had necessarily created in that principality a feeling of very great dissatisfaction." A commission of inquiry was then appointed by the Bulgarian Government to investigate the matter, and it reported that the allegations of Roumanian complicity in the formation of the Turkish bands referred to were completely false. Soon after a third cause of quarrel arose through the Bulgarian Government having brought in a bill for the naturalisation as Bulgarian subjects of persons of the Bulgarian nationality residing in Roumania and Servia. The Roumanian Government having strongly protested against this bill, it was withdrawn by the Prince's order. M. Stourdza then returned, but the antagonism between the two principalities continued to manifest itself, and

forbade the hope, at one time entertained by some sanguine politicians, of any durable alliance between them.

The most important incident in Servia during the early part of the year was the final settlement of the Austro-Servian railway question on April 8. By a special convention concluded at Berlin on July 8, 1878, the Austrian and Servian Governments had pledged themselves to effect a junction between the railways of the two countries within three years, the Austro-Hungarian Government undertaking to lay down the lines on its own territory to the point of junction at Belgrade, while Servia promised to continue within the same period the line from Belgrade to Alexinatz, whence one branch was to proceed to the Bulgarian frontier, in connection with the line from Sofia to Constantinople, and another to the Turkish frontier, in connection with the line from Mitrovitza to Salonica. Difficulties were raised, however, by the Servian Government, which proposed that the matter should be referred to a conference of the four Powers interested in it, namely, Austria, Servia, the Porte, and Bulgaria; but this proposal was rejected by the Austrian Government. At length a special envoy, M. Marcic, was despatched from Belgrade to confer with the Austrian Ministers, and the result was the conclusion of a second convention, which the Servian Government specially bound itself to carry out. The term for the completion of the junction was at the same time advanced to June 15, 1883. On the Austro-Hungarian side railway communication was to be established between Buda-Pesth and the Servian frontier either by constructing a new line or extending the one already in existence, while the Servian line was to proceed from the Hungarian frontier near Belgrade through the Morava valley to Nisch, and thence on one side to the Bulgarian and on the other to the Turkish frontier. Both Governments were to use their influence to induce the Turkish and Bulgarian Governments to join their railways to those of Servia. Thus a new step was taken for the improvement of communications with the East; and in Roumania the railway question was also placed on a more satisfactory footing by the acceptance of the railway purchasing convention, as originally concluded at Berlin, by the Chamber at Bucharest on January 27. The result of the latter measure was that Germany consented to join the other Powers in recognising the independence of Roumania on February 20.

A certain progress was made by the above arrangements towards the execution of the resolutions of the Berlin Congress; but some of the most important of these resolutions still remained unfulfilled. The questions of the Greek and Montenegrin frontiers, and that of the reforms in Armenia, the necessity for whose settlement had been repeatedly and strongly urged on the Porte by Lord Salisbury, were taken up with increased vigour by Lord Granville on his accession to office. When Mr. Goschen arrived at Constantinople on May 26, to take the place of Sir Henry Layard as special ambassador of the British Government

at the Porte, none of the above questions, except perhaps that of the Montenegrin frontier, had made even an approach to a settlement; and the Ministry, torn by opposing counsels and paralysed by palace intrigues, agreed only in doing nothing. In Armenia, which England by the Anglo-Turkish Convention may be said to have specially taken under her protection, anarchy and famine produced a condition of chronic revolt, and the local officials, instead of attempting to execute any of the promised reforms, were entirely occupied with military preparations. The population had greatly diminished, and what remained of it was exposed to hardships which have seldom been equalled in modern times. Besides being ground down by illegal imports levied by corrupt officials, the unfortunate Armenians had to suffer from the raids of the Kurds and other wild border tribes whose mission was robbery and murder. Hundreds of villages were destroyed by these savages, and their inhabitants were forced to take refuge in Russia, where they were welcomed as living proofs of the oppression of the Turkish Government. The proposed force of gendarmerie, which was to have conferred such great benefits on the people throughout the empire, existed in Armenia, as in most of the other provinces, only on paper, though for nearly three years a number of English officers engaged as gendarmerie inspectors had been at Constantinople waiting for employment. An efficient force had been organised in Crete, because the administrative interference of the Porte had to a considerable extent been excluded from that island by the Organic Statute; and a similar force existed at Adrianople, thanks to the support given to it by the enlightened governor of that town, Reouf Pasha; but the obstructiveness of the central authorities, and especially of Osman Pasha, the Minister for War, had prevented this important institution from being extended to other parts of the empire. The result was that brigandage, which had acquired a fresh stimulus during the war, extended even to the vicinity of some of the larger towns, as was shown by the capture of Colonel Syngé at his farm near Salonica on February 19. In the question of the Greek frontier matters had arrived at a deadlock: the Greek and Turkish commissioners met, but they were unable to agree as to the line to be adopted. On the Montenegrin frontier question the Porte seemed more disposed to be conciliatory. The frontier described by the Treaty of Berlin, under which the districts of Gussinye and Plava were to be ceded to Montenegro, having been objected to by the Albanian inhabitants of those districts, who threatened to resist the cession by force of arms, M. Corti, the Italian Minister at Constantinople, proposed that a new arrangement should be entered into by the Powers, permitting Turkey to retain Gussinye and Plava, and ceding to Montenegro in place of them the Kutski-Kraina and the plain of Podgoritzza. This arrangement, known as the "Corti compromise," was acceded to by the Sultan and the Powers, and a convention embodying it was signed April 12. It was at the same time stipulated that

the territories should be ceded within ten days after the ratification of the convention, and that the Turkish commander at Podgoritzza should give twenty-four hours' notice to the Montenegrin commander of his intention to evacuate the place. Instead of doing this, however, the Turkish commander informed the Montenegrins on the morning of the 22nd that he would evacuate his position at four o'clock the same afternoon; and when the Montenegrins advanced to occupy the place, they found the heights covered with Albanians who fired upon them. The Montenegrins then withdrew, and their Prince, after sending a protest to Constantinople, appealed to the Powers to assist him in obtaining his rights. The ambassadors remonstrated with the Porte, but the only result of their remonstrances was an evasive reply.

Such was the state of affairs when Mr. Goschen entered upon the duties of his mission at Constantinople. The policy of which he was to be the agent and representative was clearly indicated in Lord Granville's circular of May 4, to the British Ambassadors at Paris, Berlin, Vienna, St. Petersburg, and Rome, and in his despatch of the 18th of that month to Mr. Goschen himself. In the former document Lord Granville invited the co-operation of the Powers for preventing any further delay in the execution of the Berlin Treaty, and proposed that with this object an "identical and simultaneous" note should be addressed to the Porte by the representatives of the Powers at Constantinople, requiring the Turkish Government to fulfil "forthwith" its obligations under the treaty in regard to Greece, Montenegro, and Armenia. The despatch to Mr. Goschen stated that his appointment as Special Ambassador had been decided upon "in order to mark the sense which Her Majesty's Government entertain of the gravity of the situation," and to impress upon the Sultan that the time had arrived when the British Government was determined to insist, in concert with the other Powers, upon the fulfilment of the engagements which the Porte had entered into with regard to Greece and Montenegro, "and of the pledges for reformed administration which the Turkish Government has so often solemnly given and so repeatedly broken." After describing in detail the engagements referred to, and the policy of procrastination adopted by the Porte in regard to them, and recapitulating the promises made by the Turkish Government in answer to the repeated representations of Lord Salisbury and Sir Henry Layard on the subject, Lord Granville expressed the desire that Mr. Goschen "should clearly convey to the Sultan and the Porte" that the representations he would make to them "are essentially of a friendly character," though at the same time he should make them understand that the "present careful abstinence from menace" on the part of the British Government "does not imply any want of earnestness or determination as to the course of policy which they desire to see pursued." Matters now proceeded rapidly. On June 1 Lord Granville was able to inform Mr. Goschen that the Powers who were parties to

the Treaty of Berlin had accepted the British proposal of an identic and simultaneous note, and that a conference was to be held at Berlin "to consider and determine by a majority on the proper line of frontier to be adopted" between Turkey and Greece. The identic note was presented June 11. It stated that the delay which had occurred in carrying out certain of the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin had led to an interchange of views between the signatory Powers, the result of which was a recognition on their part that it was an object of European interest that this delay should be put an end to, and that the union of their efforts would be the surest means of securing the objects aimed at by the treaty. It further announced that a conference was about to meet at Berlin to decide the question of the Turco-Greek boundary, and addressed a peremptory demand to the Porte for an explicit declaration of the steps taken for the immediate settlement of the questions of the Montenegrin frontier and the reforms in Armenia.

This note produced great consternation in the Turkish capital, and its first consequence was a change of Ministry. Saïd and Savas Pashas were dismissed, and replaced by Kadri Pasha and Abeddin Pasha as Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs respectively. Kadri was a well-educated and intelligent official, who had risen through the various grades of the official hierarchy until he successively became Minister of the Interior and Minister of Commerce, which latter post he retained together with that of Prime Minister. The appointment of Abeddin was more significant, for being an Albanian by nationality, his selection for the Foreign Office was naturally connected with the Montenegrin and Greek questions, in both of which the opposition of the Albanians to their proposed severance from the Turkish state formed an element of first importance. Abeddin was, indeed, the second Ottoman commissioner in the abortive negotiations with Greece which followed the Berlin Congress. He was afterwards Governor of Diarbekir, then of Sivas, and finally of Salonica; and in all of these districts he distinguished himself by great administrative capacity, and a firm determination to put down oppression. Meanwhile the conference met on June 16, and on July 1 it closed its sittings, having come to a unanimous decision as to the future Turco-Greek frontier. The line of delimitation was to be drawn from the mouth of the river Kalamas to the vicinity of Han Kalibaki, and to follow the mountain ridges between the basins of the rivers, and so by Mount Olympus to the Ægean Sea, leaving the Mavroneri on the north, and the Kalamas, the Arta, the Aspropotamos, and the Salamyrias, together with the Lake of Janina and all its affluents, and Metzovo, on the south. This decision was duly communicated at Constantinople and Athens by the representatives of the Powers on July 15.

The principal objection raised by the Porte to the demands of the Powers was that it could not accede to them without a conflict with its Albanian subjects, who inhabited considerable portions of

the territory to be given up both on the side of Montenegro and of Greece, and had formed themselves into armed bands to prevent the cession. Though the Albanians profess to be loyal subjects of the Sultan, they have never been under the direct rule of the Porte. The mountainous character of their country, and the absence of roads, have divided them into a number of clans, all speaking varieties of the same language, but having little else in common except a resolution to exclude the foreigner; and the Turks have always fostered the religious and tribal dissensions which continually break out between these clans, on the principle of dividing in order to govern. Although the Turkish troops have often penetrated into the Albanian mountains, they have never succeeded in bringing their inhabitants into subjection to the Government at Constantinople. Up to the year 1831 the country was ruled by native Pashas, one for the northern and one for the southern division, while each town was governed by its native Bey, generally a Mahomedan Albanian, whose office was hereditary, and whose appointment was confirmed by the Porte as a matter of course. Since then the system of centralisation introduced in other parts of the monarchy has also been extended to Albania; but it has not penetrated to the mountains, and even in the plains, the Pashas sent from Constantinople, being ignorant of the language and customs of the country, possess much less real power than the native chiefs. The old patriarchal institutions still subsist among the mountain tribes: each tribe is governed by a council of elders, assisted by a general assembly composed of all the heads of families. There are no written laws; all disputes are regulated by ancient traditional customs, of which the vendetta is the one most frequently resorted to, and it is found impossible to enforce, as in the plains, the payment of taxes to the Turkish authorities. When the decision of the Berlin Congress as to the cession of the districts of Gussinye and Plava to Montenegro was made known, the Mahomedan Albanians who inhabited those districts joined with their co-religionists in other parts of Albania to form what was called "the Albanian League," with the object of maintaining the self-government which had hitherto been enjoyed by their nationality. The programme of the League mainly consisted in three demands:—1. That the sovereign authority of the Sultan should be maintained in Albania, and no part of its territory be annexed by neighbouring nationalities. 2. That the vilayets of Scutari, Kossovo, and Janina should be formed into a single province under a governor-general, acting by the advice of a council composed of deputies from the above districts. And 3. That a national militia should be organised under the direction of officers appointed by the Sultan. The Porte, perceiving the great use to which the warlike spirit of the Albanians, who form some of its best soldiers, might be put, secretly supported this movement, and Hussein Pasha, Governor of Scutari, became the real head of the League. In order to ensure something like unity of

action among the scattered mountain tribes, a League Committee was formed in each of the principal towns, each committee being the head of the League within the limits of its own district. The first step taken by the League was to form armed bands in the Gussinye and Plava districts, to prevent the Montenegrins from taking possession of them in pursuance of the Treaty of Berlin. Several battles took place, in which the Montenegrins were defeated; and they then gave up the attempt. The hope that the Christian Albanians would be more tractable than the Mahomedans also proved fallacious. When, under the "Corti compromise," the Christian territory of Podgoritzza, inhabited by the tribe of the Hotti, was offered to Montenegro, the League became more formidable than ever, for the Roman Catholics fraternised with the Mahomedans, the feuds between the different clans were laid aside, and the Albanian bands ranged along the Montenegrin frontier to protect their territory, consisted of representatives from all sections of the Albanian race. The League now extended its operations over the whole country, enlisting recruits, levying taxes, and protesting to the Powers in the name of the Albanian nation against any cession of its territory either to Montenegro or to Greece.

The Albanian difficulty, however, formidable as it was (and it must be admitted that the tacit encouragement given by the Turkish authorities to the League had greatly contributed to its power), was only one out of many motives which contributed to the hesitation of the Porte to yield to the demands of the Powers. The Sultan, who was constantly haunted with the dread of assassination, felt that the voluntary cession to Christian States of provinces in which a large proportion of the people are Mahomedans would arouse a storm of indignation in the Mahomedan world which might endanger his life; but besides this personal consideration there were political ones which also powerfully impressed his Ministers and the Turkish people generally. It was a common subject of complaint at Constantinople and the other large Turkish towns, that while Turkey had been strictly held to the letter of her engagements under the Treaty of Berlin, nothing whatever had been done by the Powers to carry out the provisions in the treaty the tendency of which was to benefit Turkey or uphold the authority of the Sultan. The right of the Sultan to occupy the land and sea frontiers of Eastern Roumelia remained a dead letter; the Bulgarian fortresses, which under the treaty were to be destroyed, still remained erect; the tribute due from Bulgaria had not been paid; and the despoiled and exiled Mussulmans of Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia had not yet been reinstated in their homes. This produced an impression that Turkey no longer had any friends among the great Powers, and that every concession would only be followed by fresh demands. The unionist agitation among the Bulgarians, for instance, was believed to have the sympathies of at least one great European Power, and after Turkey had

parted with large portions of her territory, and nearly half a million of her subjects, to Greece and Montenegro, she would probably be called upon to give up Eastern Roumelia, if not Macedonia also, to the aspiring Bulgarian principality. And it is indisputable that there was some ground for these apprehensions, though they were no doubt stated by the Porte in an exaggerated form to cover the vacillations of the Sultan and the disunion between the Porte and the palace. A meeting of Bulgarian deputies was held on May 29 at Slivno, in Bulgaria, at which delegates from Eastern Roumelia were present, and the question of a union of the province with Bulgaria was discussed. It was decided at this meeting, much to the disappointment of the East Roumelian delegates, not to press for an immediate union; but general preparations were to be made for any complications that might arise, and the unionist agitation was to be extended to Macedonia. A loan of 40,000 imperials was about the same time granted at a secret sitting of the Bulgarian Assembly, at the request of the East Roumelian delegates, nominally for an agricultural school; but it soon became known that this sum was to be placed at the disposal of the unionist committees, for the purpose of drafting the members of the "gymnastic societies" into the reserve of the East Roumelian militia. Meanwhile large stores of war material from Russia were being accumulated in various Bulgarian towns, and Russian agents were said to be agitating in public in the streets, the inns, and the coffee-houses on behalf of the unionist movement. The Porte thus seeing dangers on all sides, prepared to meet them. The second Turkish Army Corps was mobilised at Adrianople under the able and cultivated Governor-General Reouf Pasha; the Prussian Blum Pasha was sent to Gallipoli to repair the fortresses of the Dardanelles, and troops were despatched to the Greek frontier.

On July 12 an incident occurred which at first was regarded as a sign that the Sultan was about to yield to the pressure of the Powers. Osman Pasha, the leader in the Cabinet of the party of resistance, was removed from his post; but he was retained as Marshal of the Palace, and it soon appeared that the real cause of his dismissal was not any intended change of policy, but simply a revolt of the troops at Tchataldja on account of their having been denied the arrears of pay which were due to them. Osman, notwithstanding his high reputation as a general, had proved totally incapable as a Minister. Although the plan for the reorganisation of the army was promulgated in the autumn of 1879, he was unable to carry it out, from sheer want of knowledge of the elements of military administration. Moreover, it was a universal subject of complaint among the troops that while they could not get their pay, he not only drew his salary without reduction, but enriched himself by questionable dealings with army contractors. All this contributed to Osman's fall; and the selection of his successor, Hussein Avni, gave no reason to hope that Osman's policy

of passive resistance would be altered. The new Minister, though one of the authors of the plan of military reorganisation, which now had some prospect of being at last carried out, besides being a rigid Conservative, had taken a leading part in the formation of the Albanian League, and had organised the resistance offered to the Austrian troops when they advanced towards Novi-Bazar. Nor, although Osman had been dismissed by the Sultan in a moment of anger, did he thereby forfeit his sovereign's favour. He still continued to be one of the ruling spirits at the palace, together with Saïd Pasha, the ex-Grand Vizier, and the influence of these two men frequently overruled the advice of the Cabinet.

The remarkable contest which now followed between the Porte on the one hand, and the six Powers on the other, showed that the Sultan had in no degree wavered in his determination to resist European pressure. In the reply given on July 26 by Abeddin Pasha to the collective note stating the decision of the Berlin Conference, the Porte stated that in signing the Treaty of Berlin, which merely expresses a wish for the rectification of the Greek frontier in Epirus and Thessaly, it did not expect to receive a proposal from the Powers for the cession of Albania with the whole of Thessaly—a cession the effect of which would be “to annex to the Greek kingdom a territory almost equal in extent to one-half of the present territory of that kingdom.” Further, the Powers had stated that they had instructed their plenipotentiaries at the Berlin Conference to fix a “solid defensive frontier” between Greece and Turkey; but such a frontier should at least guarantee the Porte against an attack on the part of Greece, whereas the cession of so important a military position as Metzovo to that Power would expose the Turkish provinces on the frontier to attacks against which the Porte would be defenceless. The despatch added that the proposed frontier is even more objectionable from a political point of view. It would not be possible for the Porte to consent to the cession to Greece of Janina, which the Albanians have always regarded as their capital, for by so doing “it would provoke grave complications which might compromise the peaceful exercise of its authority in that portion of European Turkey.” Equal difficulties would be encountered in the cession of Larissa, an important town the majority of whose population is Mahomedan, and which is surrounded by a number of Mahomedan districts and villages. “How could his Imperial Majesty the Sultan, Caliph and Chief of the Mahomedan religion, in face of the solicitude manifested by the Christian Powers of Europe in favour of a Christian kingdom, sacrifice a large town which is essentially Mahomedan, and thereby alienate not only its inhabitants, which are imploring the imperial protection, but the whole Mahomedan world?” The despatch finally points out that even M. Waddington, who had taken the initiative in proposing the rectification of the Greek frontier at the Congress, did not hesitate to exclude from the territory to be ceded to Greece the town of Janina and the Albanian

district of Tchamouri ; and it expresses the readiness of the Porte to enter into negotiations for the settlement of the question on the basis of retaining under the rule of the Sultan Janina, Larissa, Metzovo, and certain districts inhabited by Mahomedans.

It cannot be denied that these arguments for a reconsideration of the decision of the Berlin Conference were put with much skill, and were not without cogency, at least from a Turkish point of view ; but the Porte could hardly have expected the Powers to alter resolutions which had so recently and unanimously been arrived at. On August 28, in a second collective note addressed to the Porte, the Powers stated that they could not agree to a re-opening of the discussion ; that having accepted the decisions of the Conference, they felt obliged to maintain them ; and that they could only now negotiate with the Porte as to the manner in which the territory should be evacuated by the Ottoman authorities and surrendered to Greece. Here for the present the Greek question was allowed to rest ; but the Powers had in the meanwhile concerted measures for putting increased pressure on the Sultan in the matter of the frontier of Montenegro. On June 29 the ambassadors at Constantinople presented a note to the Porte stating that the delay it had asked for in order to carry out the April convention did not meet the wishes of the Powers, who were anxious for a speedy settlement of the question. At the same time they had taken into consideration the offer of the Porte to accept any other proposal which would be more likely to lead to the attainment of the object in view, and they accordingly recommended that the Porte should compensate Montenegro by the cession of the district of Dulcigno instead of those named in the Berlin Treaty ; but this course should be adopted immediately, and in the meantime the Porte was to be held to the convention made with Montenegro in April. The reply, dated July 15, was that though perfectly willing to carry out the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin relative to Montenegro, the Porte was unable to adopt either of the alternatives laid before it by the Powers, as it was not prepared to compel its Albanian subjects to submit to the rule of Montenegro against their will. On July 22 a new arrangement was suggested by the Porte. It proposed to give up to Montenegro certain territory on the Zem and in the plain of Podgoritza, which it stated the Albanians were willing to cede ; but Montenegro declined this arrangement, on the ground that the territory mentioned could not be effectually protected against Albanian raids. Montenegro at the same time broke off diplomatic relations with the Porte. A third collective note was then presented (August 3) by the ambassadors, stating that the Powers could not lend themselves any longer to the system of delay which the Porte continued to pursue in the Montenegrin question, and that they must now invite the Ottoman Government to put an end to it. They would therefore expect the matter to be settled within three weeks, either in accordance with the "Corti compromise," or by the Porte joining

the Powers in order to assist the Prince of Montenegro to take forcible possession of the district of Dulcigno. On August 19 the Porte replied that it would consent "in principle" to the cession of Dulcigno, provided that the line of frontier east of Lake Scutari should be that indicated by the Berlin Treaty; but, in order that the cession should take place without shock or difficulty, it asked for a prolongation by some weeks of the limit of twenty-one days fixed by the Powers. It added that if the Powers should take any steps to assist Montenegro to occupy Dulcigno by force, Turkey would not take any part in such measures.

The resources of diplomacy being now exhausted, the Powers determined, at the invitation of England, to enter upon a policy of moral coercion. Arrangements were made for organising a naval demonstration off the Albanian coast, each Power being represented by ironclads from its fleet, on the understanding, however, that no troops were to be landed; and in order still further to guard against the danger of drifting into war, a *protocole de désintéressement* was signed by each of the Powers at the instance of the British Government, in which it pledged itself not to seek any territorial acquisitions or any exclusive influence or commercial advantages for its subjects as a consequence of the demonstration. The fleet assembled at Gravosa on September 14, and was placed under the command of Admiral Sir Beauchamp Seymour. Meanwhile, extreme agitation prevailed at Constantinople; alarming rumours were circulated of the arrival in Bulgaria of large numbers of Russian volunteers with the avowed object of conquering Eastern Roumelia; serious disturbances took place in Syria, among the Arab tribes, and in Kurdistan; and seditious proclamations began to be distributed in the capital. The Sultan, becoming more anxious than ever, again sought a remedy for the dangers which were threatening himself and his empire in a change of counsellors. He first dismissed (August 21) Hafiz Pasha, the Minister of Police, who had for some time enjoyed his special favour, owing to the zeal he displayed in discovering real or fancied political conspiracies. Hafiz was one of the three high officials whom Lord Derby had recommended for punishment on account of the prominent part taken by them in the "Bulgarian atrocities;" and the imprisonment of Ahmed Tevfik, which elicited so strong a protest from the Powers at the end of the year 1879, was carried out by his orders. His dismissal, however, was not due to any wish on the part of the Sultan to conciliate Europe, but to Hafiz having threatened to break open the house of a Turkish staff officer in order to take out the officer's relative, a girl twelve years old, whom he considered not sufficiently veiled at the feast of Ramazan. Shortly after (September 12), the Grand Vizier, Kadri Pasha, was succeeded by Saïd, the man described by Sir Henry Layard in one of his despatches as the uncompromising adversary of all reform, the bitter opponent of a policy of conciliation, and the most determined enemy of England at the Porte, and who had been dismissed only

three months before under the influence of the terror with which the Sultan was inspired by the mission of Mr. Goschen. At the same time Server Pasha, a well-known advocate of Russia, was appointed President of the Council of State. He was Minister of Foreign Affairs during the Russo-Turkish war, and signed the armistice at its close. On January 28, 1878, he had a conversation with a correspondent of the *Daily News* at Constantinople, in which he sharply condemned the policy of England, and declared that Turkey's only chance of regeneration lay in an intimate alliance with Russia. He was dismissed three weeks after, and his disgrace was at the time generally attributed to English influence having been used against him in consequence of the above conversation. Finally, Abeddin Pasha was succeeded in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs by Assim Pasha, a rising Turkish diplomatist, who had held the office of President of the International Commission for Eastern Roumelia.

A Ministry thus composed was not likely to adopt a policy of conciliation. The first note of defiance was sounded on September 17, when a circular was issued by the Porte to its representatives abroad on the naval demonstration. After recapitulating the difficulties which had arisen in carrying out the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin relative to the Montenegrin frontier, the circular stated that the last proposal of the Powers, demanding the surrender of the district of Dulcigno to Montenegro, was strongly objected to by the Mahomedan inhabitants of that district, but that the Porte, wishing to settle the Montenegrin question as soon as possible, had despatched to that district several battalions of troops and considerable sums of money to facilitate the establishment of those of the inhabitants who desired to emigrate to other parts of the empire, and to persuade the remainder to "resign themselves to the decrees of destiny." Notwithstanding this, the six Powers had proposed to the Porte to join them in taking Dulcigno by force from the possession of its inhabitants, and handing it over to Montenegro. This was, in the words of the circular, "an illegality, from the double point of view of religion and policy." The Porte accordingly demanded, "in order to reassure the public mind, and complete and accelerate its acts in the presence of grave eventualities," that the project of a naval demonstration should be abandoned, that guarantees should be given for the security of the inhabitants of Dulcigno, and for their not being disturbed in the practice of their religion, and that the positions of Dinosch and Gruda, to the east of the Lake of Scutari, which had been strongly fortified and garrisoned by the Albanians, should be retained by them. If, the circular concluded, these conditions should not be accepted, the result would be "a crowd of grave and unfortunate events;" the cries of despair of the population would extend the agitation to the European and Asiatic provinces of the empire, and the responsibility for this state of things would fall, not upon the Porte, but upon the Powers.

Of the conditions laid down in this circular, the second and third might perhaps have been open to negotiation. That some guarantee was necessary for the security of the inhabitants of Dulcigno was shown by the fact that the principal Mahomedans at Podgoritzza, a town ceded to Montenegro after the conclusion of the Berlin Treaty, had just been imprisoned by the Montenegrin commandant for a manifestation of sympathy with the Albanians. As to the positions of Dinosch and Gruda, they were important from a strategical point of view, as defences for the Albanian territory; and the Powers had even agreed, in a note dated two days earlier than the Turkish circular, not to insist upon their surrender provided Dulcigno were given up. But it was impossible now to abandon the naval demonstration; that the ironclads of the Powers, after assembling to compel the Porte to give up Dulcigno, should go back again *re infectâ*, would have been a stultification of Europe. The ambassadors at Constantinople were accordingly instructed to state to the Porte that the naval demonstration must be carried out; and Admiral Seymour at the same time summoned the Governor-General of Scutari to hand over Dulcigno to the Montenegrins. The reply was given on September 22. It stated that no instructions had arrived from Constantinople, that in the absence of orders to the contrary, Dulcigno must be regarded as part of the Ottoman Empire, and that the Turkish troops would forcibly resist any advance of the Montenegrins or any action on the part of the fleet. The Montenegrins were also warned that if they advanced on Dulcigno, the Turks would attack Antivari. Admiral Seymour then proceeded to Cettinje (September 23), to arrange with the Prince of Montenegro for an advance of his troops on Dulcigno; but the Prince represented that by so doing he would enter upon a war with Turkey, and that it would therefore be necessary that he should first be assured of the active support of the Powers. This brought matters to a deadlock, for though some of the Powers at least were ready and willing to give Montenegro assistance so far as to bombard the Turkish positions with the combined fleet, they were not disposed to take the responsibility of protecting Montenegro against the consequences of a war with the Ottoman Empire.

The next step in this singular imbroglio was taken by Turkey. On October 6 the Porte addressed to the Powers a long despatch, treating of all the questions at issue between it and Europe. It stated that information had reached the Turkish Government that the naval demonstration would be used not only for the purpose of bringing about the surrender of Dulcigno, but also for the settlement of the Greek question, of the proposed reforms in Armenia, and of the position of the Turkish bondholders and the question of the Russian indemnity. In order, therefore, "finally to set aside for the present as well as the future this design of a naval demonstration, which tends to nothing less than to imperil the existence of the empire," the Porte enumerated "the utmost

measures it was possible for it to take with reference to the questions above specified." With regard to the Montenegrin and Greek questions, the despatch repeated the conditions already laid down in the note of September 17 as to the surrender of Dulcigno, and the objections urged in the note of July 26 to the frontier assigned to Greece by the Conference, at the same time proposing a new frontier leaving Janina, Larissa, Tchamouri, and Metzovo in the possession of Turkey. As to the proposed reforms in Armenia, a reorganisation of the gendarmerie and the tribunals was promised for the provinces of Erzeroum, Van, Bitlis, and Diarbekir, with regulations for the appropriation of their revenues. A new organisation for the provinces of European Turkey, so as to guarantee the repose and security of all classes of the population, and to ensure the full and entire sovereignty of the Porte, was also promised for the provinces of European Turkey which did not already possess a special organisation of their own. For the settlement of the financial question delegates of the Turkish bondholders were to be invited to Constantinople to come to an agreement with the Turkish Government, "without any interference on the part of the Powers," as to the service of the Turkish debt and the mode of providing for the Turkish indemnity. This agreement was to be arrived at on the principle that a bank appointed by the bondholders should be charged with the administration of the indirect taxes, and the application of the revenues arising from those taxes, from Eastern Roumelia and Cyprus, and from the tribute of Bulgaria, to payments in discharge of the public debt, the floating debt, and the Russian indemnity; but it was expressly stipulated that the Porte should "reserve the right to control the revenues in question." Finally, the despatch stated that these concessions were to be made "on the condition that the Powers will entirely abandon and forego their design of a naval demonstration;" and it added that "the Ottoman Government, taking in turn its stand upon the Treaty of Berlin, claims the rights reverting to it in relation to the demolition of the Danubian fortresses and the occupation of the Balkans by Ottoman troops."

It will be observed that the leading idea of this bold manifesto was that the sovereignty of the Porte was at all risks to be maintained. In view of the many humiliations which had been inflicted on his Empire, and the dangers which threatened it on all sides, the Sultan felt that the only way to preserve it from dissolution was to assert his sovereignty both at home and abroad. Nothing could be more calculated to shake his authority than the naval demonstration; and this, therefore, must at all risks be averted. Any coercion of his own subjects to make them accept the rule of a foreign State would be clearly incompatible with his sovereignty; and he accordingly persisted in his refusal to take any such step. All internal reforms, too, were to be so carried out as "to ensure the full and entire sovereignty of the Porte;" there

was to be no European interference in the financial arrangements, and even the revenues which were to be appropriated to the payment of the Empire's debts were to remain under the Sultan's control. The Powers, however, cared but little for the Sultan's sovereignty; they looked only to the fulfilment of the demands they had made upon him; and from this point of view the despatch was rightly considered as little better than a mockery. The experience which had been gained of the dilatory methods of Turkish diplomacy, and of the unwillingness of the Sultan to cede any territory, however clear his obligation to do so might be under the Berlin Treaty, or to make any reforms, however necessary for the welfare of his subjects, could only lead to the conclusion that the Sultan had no real intention of carrying out the engagements into which he had entered, and that his only object was to disturb the concert of the Powers, and thereby to emancipate himself from European control.

While the Powers were debating as to what should be done next, a new and surprising change of front was made by the Porte. On October 12, six days after it had declared that it would not yield to any of the demands of Europe unless the naval demonstration were abandoned, it addressed a note to the Powers stating that in order to "give a new proof of its loyalty and goodwill," and "with the object of averting the naval demonstration," it would at once give directions to the local authorities for the cession of the district to the Montenegrin authorities "by pacific means." Whether this sudden decision was arrived at in consequence of England having proposed that the Powers should sequester the revenues of Smyrna and other Turkish ports as a further means of pressure on the Sultan, or, as was generally believed on the Continent, because Germany and France had promised the Sultan that if he gave up Dulcigno the naval demonstration would be at an end, it seems that this time at least he was sincere in his promise to the Powers. Dervish Pasha, a general who had acquired some celebrity by the skill and resolution he had displayed in the administration of other parts of the Empire, was sent with a large body of troops to awe the Albanians into submission. Long and tedious negotiations, accompanied by endless marchings and counter-marchings, ensued, during which the prospects of the cession of Dulcigno seemed to be growing more and more remote. At length Dervish Pasha, finding it impossible to induce the Albanians to give up the place by pacific means, determined to use force. He marched his troops to Dulcigno on November 24, and after an encounter with the Albanians, in which there were some killed and wounded on both sides, entered the town, which was formally surrendered to Montenegro on November 26. The object for which the European fleet had been assembled in the Adriatic having thus been achieved, it dispersed on December 5.

While Europe was occupied with the Montenegrin question, the Greeks, fearing that the difficulty which had been experienced

in obtaining the cession of an insignificant piece of territory to Montenegro might render the Powers indisposed to press upon the Porte the execution of the decision of the Berlin Conference assigning to Greece the large and fertile provinces of Epirus and Thessaly, made extensive naval and military preparations with the proclaimed object of obtaining those provinces by violent means, in the probable event of Turkey refusing to give them up peacefully. On October 21 the King of Greece, who had during the summer and autumn visited the principal European capitals in order personally to urge upon the various Governments the Greek claims, opened the Greek Parliament with a warlike speech, in which he asked the co-operation of the Chamber to enable him to carry out "the national duties" imposed upon him, and stated that the army will not be disbanded until the new order of things in the territory awarded to Greece is established. This speech was received with great enthusiasm by the Chamber and the people, and the Tricoupis Ministry had to resign in consequence of an adverse vote of the Chamber, given because M. Tricoupis was not considered energetic enough in his war preparations. The new Premier, M. Coumoundouros, strengthened and encouraged the warlike spirit of the nation; volunteers flocked in from various parts of Greece and Turkey to join the Greek army, and a new loan was contracted to provide the necessary funds for maintaining the army on a war footing. These proceedings caused considerable alarm in the chief European capitals, and various means were suggested of averting the danger, which seemed to be imminent, of a Greco-Turkish war. While the Powers were deliberating on this subject, and at the same time recommending patience to the Greeks and moderation to the Turks, the Porte issued, on December 14, a circular note expressing its desire for a solution of the Greek question, but stating that the proposal contained in its despatch of October 3 was the last concession it could make to the Powers in this respect. The circular further pointed out that Greece was openly preparing for war with Turkey, and urged upon the Powers the necessity of using their influence to persuade the Greek Cabinet to abandon its military preparations and enter at once into negotiations for an amicable solution of the frontier question. In another circular, sent on the 15th as an instruction for the ambassadors, Assim Pasha combated the assertion that Greece was entitled to be compensated for having abstained from attacking Turkey during the Servian and Russian wars, stating that Greece was at that time totally incapable of making war, and that at the same time her attitude was so doubtful that Turkey was obliged to keep about 40,000 men on the Greek frontier and a portion of her fleet in Greek waters, although these forces would have been of the greatest use to her at other points of the Empire, which were at that time threatened with invasion. This circular concluded by suggesting that Greece should at least be advised to reduce her demands, which in their present form were considered

quite unacceptable by the Porte. It appeared evident from the general tone here adopted by the Turkish Government that it would be willing to agree to a compromise, provided it were insisted upon by the Powers and accepted by Greece. France accordingly proposed that the matter should be settled by arbitration; and it was ultimately agreed among the Powers that this expedient should be tried, on the understanding that no coercion should be imposed upon Turkey to enforce the decision of the arbitrators; that the court of arbitration should consist of England, France, Germany, Austria, Italy, and Russia; and that the decision should be given by a majority of the members of the court. Neither Turkey nor Greece, however, was willing to accept the proposal, and at the close of the year negotiations on the subject were still going on.

No progress was made during the year with regard to the other unsettled questions connected with the Berlin Treaty. The Bulgarian fortifications were not demolished, and the question of the possession of Arab Tabia remained undecided. An attempt was made to improve the financial administration of Turkey by the appointment of several German officials to important posts in the Government offices at Constantinople, and by an arrangement proposed in November to the Turkish bondholders for resuming the payment of interest on the public debt; but these measures had at the end of the year not produced any tangible result, although the direction of the Ministry of Finance was twice changed within little more than three months—once by the appointment of Subi Pasha on September 13, and afterwards by that of Tewfik Pasha on December 27. An International Committee, appointed to prepare a scheme of administrative reform for the European provinces of Turkey, sat from May 25 to August 23. It proposed an Organic Statute, of which the following were the chief provisions:—1. The governor of each province to be appointed for five years, and to be controlled directly by the Executive Council, and indirectly by the Provincial Assembly. 2. The Executive Council to be composed of six principal officials of all the heads of the religious communities, and of six members elected by the Assembly. 3. The Assembly to be composed of two elective members from each canton, of *ex officio* members, comprising six chief officials and the heads of the religious communities, and of members nominated by the governor, not exceeding one-fourth of the whole. 4. The Assembly to deal with laws relating to the administration, the distribution of taxation, mines and forests, public works, education, agriculture, commerce, banks, hospitals, &c., and to have the right of increasing or diminishing items in the budget. 5. Direct taxes to be paid into the Ottoman Bank, which will open three separate accounts: one for the expenses of local administration, which are to be in all cases the first charge on the revenue; one for 15 per cent. of the surplus, which is to be devoted to public works and education in the province; and one for the remainder

of the surplus, which is to be paid to the central government. This statute was duly accepted by the Porte, but no serious attempt was made to carry it into effect. The same may be said of the promised reforms in Armenia. On July 5, a general scheme of reforms for that province was laid before the Powers in a circular despatch from the Turkish Minister of Foreign Affairs. But on September 7, in a collective note addressed by the ambassadors at Constantinople to the Porte, it was pointed out that this scheme did not in any way provide for the "local wants" of the population, as required by the 61st article of the Treaty of Berlin; that in order to do this the communes and administrative groups should be so divided as to separate the settled population from the semi-nomadic tribes, and the appropriation of the local revenues be regulated on the same principle as that laid down in the Organic Statute for the European provinces, which should also determine the tenure of office and extent of the functions of the governors-general; and that it was absolutely necessary "to carry out, without loss of time, the reforms intended to secure the life and property of the Armenians, to take immediate measures against the incursions of the Kurds, to carry out at once the proposed system of finance, to place the gendarmerie provisionally on a more satisfactory footing, and, above all, to give to the governors-general greater security of office and a more extended responsibility." No direct reply was given to this note, but in its circular of October 6 the Porte announced that reforms for Armenia were in progress, and a division of Armenia into administrative districts was actually carried out, which, however, gave great dissatisfaction to the Christian population, as the districts were so divided as to give the Mahomedans a majority in each. In other respects the state of anarchy which has prevailed in Armenia since the Russo-Turkish war has not materially altered; and it has indeed been aggravated by the formation of a Kurdish league, which, like the league of the Albanians, and of the Wallachs of Thrace and Macedonia, aims at securing for its chiefs a position of semi-independence in the Turkish Empire, similar to that of the present governor-general of Eastern Roumelia or of the princes of Roumania and Servia before the late war.

During the latter part of the year there were but few incidents deserving of record in the minor States of the Balkan peninsula. Bulgaria, like Eastern Roumelia, still remained under Russian influence, and the unionist agitation became less demonstrative, under direct orders, it was said, from St. Petersburg, although in December the Zankoff Ministry was succeeded by one formed by M. Karaveloff, the chief of the Radical party. In Roumania there was an attempt (which, however, had no political significance) to assassinate the premier, M. Bratiano, on December 14; and the question of the succession to the throne, which had been raised in consequence of the probability of the reigning prince remaining childless, was settled by the prince adopting his brother's eldest

son as heir, on condition that he should comply with the Roumanian constitution by joining the Greek Church. The Roumanians, who have not forgotten the ingratitude displayed by Russia in claiming the retrocession of Bessarabia after a war in which they had been the most valuable of her allies, now gravitated to the side of Austria. The same tendency was shown by Servia, her Prime Minister, M. Ristitch—known as “the Servian Cavour”—having been obliged to resign in consequence of his opposition to the claim of the Austrian Government that Austrian goods should be admitted into Servia on the same footing as those of “the most favoured nation.” The elections which followed gave the new Conservative Ministry of MM. Miyatovich and Garaschanin an overwhelming majority, thereby proving that the Servian people had had enough of the policy of adventure which had been pursued not without success, but at an enormous sacrifice of blood and treasure, for the past four years by M. Ristitch.

CHAPTER V.

MINOR STATES OF EUROPE.

I. SPAIN. II. PORTUGAL. III. BELGIUM. IV. THE NETHERLANDS.
V. SWITZERLAND. VI. NORWAY. VII. SWEDEN. VIII. DENMARK.

I. SPAIN.

THE first act of the Cortes on reassembling after the holidays was to appoint delegates of the two Chambers to congratulate the King on his escape from Otero's attempt. Señor Canovas, the Prime Minister, took occasion to express his regret at the continued absence of the representatives of the Opposition from the sittings. All attempts, however, to persuade them to abandon the line they had seen fit to adopt were fruitless; and the explanation of the events of the sitting of December 10 previous, by the Prime Minister, provoked by Señor Guell y Rentè, in the Senate, although regarded as generally satisfactory, failed to conciliate the Opposition, who held that as the affront, supposed or real, was put upon its members in Congress, it was in that House that the Ministerial explanations should be made. This Señor Canovas refused to do spontaneously. At length an agreement was arrived at. On January 26, in the Congress, and in reply to a speech delivered by Señor Posada Herrera, Señor Canovas repeated substantially what he had already said in the other House, declaring that, in respect to what took place on December 10, he had had no intention to offend the minorities. In a meeting of the latter, held the next day, after

some discussion, during which a fraction of the Assembly was with difficulty induced to yield, it was resolved that they should return to their seats, which was accordingly done on the 29th, the incident being thus brought to a satisfactory conclusion.

Meanwhile the Opposition had not been inactive. General Martinez Campos had formally taken his seat on that side of the Senate in anticipation of the Cuban Slavery Bill, which passed the Lower House on January 20, and Señor Canovas had scarcely improved his position by shelving in the Presidential chair the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Conde de Toreno, and assuming the vacant portfolio. The tactics resorted to by the Opposition were those of minute criticism and delay, culminating on February 28 in a vote of censure on the Minister of War for his conduct of the campaign in Cuba. The debate gave rise to a somewhat curious imbroglio, the inculpated Minister directing his speech rather to a censure of the President, Conde de Toreno, than to the attacks of his opponents. The Minister of War appealed to the Ministerial majority to censure a former colleague, on the ground that he had allowed a damaging motion to be proposed without the necessary sanction of the various sections of the House. On recognising, however, the doubtful expediency of such a proposal, and on wishing to withdraw it, the Opposition intervened and insisted upon the motion being maintained. The President then sided with the Ministry, and withdrew from discussion the vote of censure upon himself; whereupon the Opposition in its turn proposed a vote of censure on the President, who, on this occasion, was defended by Señor Canovas, who urged the majority to reject the proposal. The minority then, rather than afford Señor Canovas the opportunity for a triumph, withdrew the motion, and matters were at length settled; but not without loss of dignity by the President and prestige by the Ministry.

In the Senate the conflict reached its climax on March 4. A telegram found in the Archives of the Ministry of the Colonies, relating to administrative and judicial irregularities formerly existing in Cuba, was read by Señor Canovas, and provoked from General Martinez Campos a spirited retort. Amongst other things he declared that Señor Canovas, who was always dreaming of conspiracies, had recalled him from Cuba, and suggested him to the King as a Minister, in order to carry out those reforms in Cuba he (Martinez Campos) had proposed, but to which the Prime Minister was bitterly hostile. In his reply, Señor Canovas failed to assign any other reason for the General's recall than the prestige he enjoyed. This squabble, though unimportant in itself, beyond showing the fear entertained by Canovas of anyone's popularity besides his own, nevertheless opened up a long debate on Cuban affairs, from which it became clear that the insurrectionary state of the island was an indisputable fact. In the course of the discussion the Marquis de Orovis, Minister of Finance, accused the *Reformistas* (i.e., those who stood up for Cuban reforms) of

endeavouring to thwart Government by depriving it of the necessary means to crush the insurrection; whereupon the Cuban Deputies rose to a man, insisting that the Minister should explain his words. Whether on account of this, or for other reasons variously alleged by rumour, or really, as pleaded, from ill-health (for he had fallen ill), the Marquis shortly afterwards insisted on resigning, to which, after fruitless efforts to prevent it, his colleagues at last acceded; and, in a Cabinet Council presided over by the King, March 18, the Government was modified as follows, viz.:—Señor Elduayen, to be Minister of Foreign Affairs; Señor Bustillos, Minister of the Colonies; and Señor Cos-Gayon, Minister of Finance.

The latter adopted his predecessor's Budget, which was discussed with scarcely any opposition, and passed the Congress June 12.

The Senate, on June 3, passed a vote of confidence in the Canovas Cabinet, by 186 against only one dissenting voice; and, on June 11, after a warm debate, in which General Martinez Campos and Señor Canovas took the chief part, it was confirmed by another vote of confidence, the numbers being 170 for and 22 against the Government. In Congress there were also vehement and angry discussions; but on a division, June 13, a vote of confidence in the Ministry was likewise passed by 246 against 13, the *Constitucionales liberales* abstaining, and ten days later the Cortes were closed by decree.

Meanwhile a "fusion" had long been, and still was, the object of different parties. The attempt among the Democratic groups, which had failed last year, met with no greater success now that each of those numerous groups wished to lead. The only tangible result of this general yearning for a "fusion" was a rising conviction among the moderate of all parties, that parties or factions were too plentiful, and that a coalition movement, under the leadership of General Martinez Campos, might tend to form a new Liberal party. Notwithstanding the opposition the suggestion at first met with from Señor Sagasta, leader of the *Constitucionales*, he subsequently announced his adhesion to it, and a concentration of the Liberal dynastic parties became apparent about the middle of May. On the 18th, the *Constitucionales*, the *Centralistas*, the friends of General Martinez Campos, and those of Señor Posada Herrera, elected a Committee charged with drawing up a scheme for the fusion of those groups. A meeting took place on May 27, Señor Sagasta presiding; 45 Senators and 130 Deputies responded to the call, 4 Captains-General, and 16 Generals of different grades, being among the number. It was decided that the ruling principle of the NEW PARTY should be "free elections," in order that the majority might truly represent the country. A Committee of Management was appointed, composed of Señors Sagasta, Martinez Campos, Posada Herrera, Veja Armijo, Alonso Martinez, and Romero Ortiz, to determine the

course of action to be followed. Meanwhile the policy of the Ministry abroad was a reflection of the work at home.

By a vote of the Congress, April 22, Cuban reforms had been deferred till after the negotiation of a treaty of commerce with the United States. In May, Mazari's conspiracy having failed, forty-two prisoners were condemned to be shot. The Governor, General Blanco, having asked for instructions as to the execution of the gentlemen, the Home Government left him to use his own discretion in the matter; and the penalty was thereupon commuted. This act of clemency did more to bring about a reconciliation with the National party in the island than any of the long series of coercive measures ordered from Madrid. Within a few weeks General Blanco was able to convey the welcome intelligence that Cuba was pacified, and that the leaders of the insurrection had accepted the terms offered; which included a reduction in the number of working hours to be exacted from black labourers, and the prohibition of corporal punishment. These laws were approved by the Council of State on June 23, and the new Cuban loan for 260,250,000 pesetas was opened throughout Spain a week later, and immediately covered by subscriptions for nearly three times the amount required.

It was not, however, until September that the Cuban leaders, Carrillo and Pigneas, surrendered, while the last band of insurgents was dispersed at the end of November, and on December 15 peace was officially proclaimed in the island.

In anticipation of the elections for provincial deputies in September, there was during the previous month a considerable stir among political parties. At a Conference held at St. Sebastian by some of the Opposition leaders, it was decided to take part in the elections. But this decision was generally disregarded. The opponents of the Ministry, as a rule, abstained from voting, and, except in the Basque Provinces and Valencia, the Government party won the day everywhere. In the Basque Provinces, where the Carlist element prevailed, the Ministerialists gave their support to the candidates of the fraction of the Carlist party known as *la pega*; but the other fraction, the *puros*, in conjunction with some Democratic groups, obtained majorities in more than half the electoral districts. Towards this result the sermons of the clergy had in some measure contributed, and these were the more difficult to control as they were delivered in the Basque language, but imperfectly understood by the officials of the central Government. Consequently, with a view to banish politics from the pulpit, two decrees were issued in October prohibiting sermons in Basque, and assimilating the provincial and municipal laws of those provinces to the rest of Spain. This was resented, in their sermons, by the parish priests of Lequeytio and of Zumaya. The former, Namo Garagarza, an ex-Jesuit, was, at first, ordered to be expelled from Spain; but this sentence was subsequently modified to banishment from his diocese (Vittoria). Some division

of opinion arose in the Cabinet, and there were even symptoms of a crisis; but the difficulty was got over, apparently, by a compromise.

The legislative Session, which had been suspended June 23, was, by decree of September 16, declared to be at an end; and it was not till December 5 that a new Session was convoked to meet on the 30th of the same month.

During the interval political parties were very active; but the close of the year found the political situation externally unchanged, and yet the position of the Ministry, though still supported by a Parliamentary majority, was obviously tottering at the close of the Session. Banquets were given by the Opposition in various provincial towns (at Lerida, Barcelona, Valencia, Cordova, &c.) in order to afford the leaders of the various sections opportunities of expressing their respective views. At one time there were fears of a rupture in the "Fusionista" ranks; the party seemed to be pursuing different aims: the "Constitutional" element, led by Señor Balaguer, showed a Democratic bias; whilst the other—the "Centralist" element, led by Señor Alonzo Martinez—was of a Monarchical and dynastic tendency. Dissensions also occurred in the *Moderado-histórico* party, the result, as was generally believed, of the dexterous manœuvring of Señor Canovas del Castillo, who lost no opportunity of hinting to the members of the party that, as it then held itself, it had very little chance of ever attaining power. One of the leaders, Count de Puñonrostro, Vice-President of the *Junta*, issued a circular to the Committees proposing that the party should give their support to the Government's Conservative policy. In a meeting, presided over by Señor Moyano, the proposal was rejected. A very large majority of the local Committees acted in the same spirit, only 66 out of 500 adhering to the Vice-President's proposal. At the close of the year the dissolution of the *Moderado-histórico* party seemed inevitable; for already in the beginning of December its organ, *El Mundo Político*, had declared itself independent, and Señor Moyano and a few personal friends remained the only apparent stay of the party.

The intention attributed to Señor Canovas of giving some half-dozen seats in the Senate to the "Fusionistas" fell through on account of the latter intimating their refusal, and also because the Ministerialists themselves were divided on other matters.

On the approach of the birth of a child to the King, a decree appeared on August 23 revoking that of May 26, 1850, and declaring that the sons of Don Alfonso, heirs to the Crown, should be styled *Princes of the Asturias*, the daughters retaining their own titles, unless otherwise decided by the King. This measure was censured by the Constitutional-Monarchists; and the newspapers published (August 28) a protest against it, maintaining that, if the Queen gave birth to a daughter, the latter ought to bear the title of *Princess of the Asturias* by right of birth, and

not by mere Royal pleasure. The child born on September 11 proved to be a daughter, christened Mercedes, to whom the title of Princess of the Asturias was not granted, the King's sister being allowed to retain it. The Fusionist press protested vigorously, and the leaders of the party gave it to be understood that, should they come into power, they would revoke the Canovas decree; whilst their organs invariably gave the Asturian title to the newborn Infanta whenever allusion was made to her. No notice was taken of this officially, and another decree appeared, October 17, awarding Princess Mercedes a yearly dowry of 401,388 pesetas (16,000*l.*, about), and reducing that of the Princess of the Asturias (the King's sister, and till then presumptive heiress) to 200,697 pesetas (a trifle over 8,000*l.*)

The Cortes were opened December 30. In the Speech from the Throne the King said that no fears were entertained about the peace of the kingdom being broken; that attempts would be made to negotiate treaties of commerce, by Spain granting advantages in return for such as she might obtain from foreign nations. The expenses of the war had left the Treasury charged with heavy liabilities, and it would be necessary to increase taxes, which, however, would not fall upon Consols, whilst the obligations relative to the award of July 21, 1876, in favour of Spanish bondholders would render imperative fresh sacrifices.

Otero, who had attempted the King's life on December 30 previous, was tried in the Lower Court, and sentence of death passed on him February 10, which was confirmed the 25th, on appeal to the Supreme Court. The condemned man appealed anew, but without result. Many applications were made in his behalf for commutation, but the Government advising that the law should take its course, Otero was executed April 14. The Democratic Deputy Carvajal attempted to bring the question of commutation before Congress, but the President refused to hear him. A vote of censure for this was moved by the minority, but was subsequently withdrawn, though not until Carvajal had vehemently attacked the Government. The newspapers had also taken up the matter. In the course of the discussion *El Liberal* was denounced by the Fiscal of the Press for an article on "clemency;" whilst *La Prensa* was also denounced for defending *El Liberal*.

On May 15 a Conference, attended by the Plenipotentiaries of all the chief European Powers except Russia and Turkey, was opened at Madrid, with a view of settling a *modus vivendi* with Morocco. The principal points discussed related to the naturalization of Moors in other countries, the rights of Jews established in Morocco, and those of European States to protect their own subjects within the territory of the Emperor of Morocco—questions which had been left open since the Conference of Tangier in 1875. The Conference met frequently and lengthened debates occurred, and it was not until July 3 that the final protocol, containing eighteen articles embodying the various questions raised,

was signed. A Collective Note to the Emperor of Morocco was moreover signed by all the European representatives, couched in strong language, impressing upon his Majesty the necessity of respecting the liberty of conscience of his Hebrew and Christian subjects, and of enforcing toleration on his Mussulman subjects.

Some disturbances took place in Arragon in the early part of the summer in consequence of the dilatory proceedings of the Government in sanctioning a new line of railroad through the Central Pyrenees. The project, which was to connect Lanfranc and Laragoza, was opposed on strategic and advocated on commercial grounds, and the Arragonese, sympathising rather with the latter, expressed its views by riotous meetings. The Council, however, maintained its attitude of indecision, and referred the project back to a Committee of Inquiry.

The arrival of large numbers of Jesuits from France attracted far less notice than the date of the decree (July 16) authorising them to settle in various parts of the kingdom, which coincided with the anniversary of the massacre of the Spanish Jesuits in 1839.

Complaints of distress were prevalent during the winter; and, in a speech in the Congress in April, Señor Candau made a statement to the effect that 173,000 landed properties were under fiscal embargo for nonpayment of taxes. This, in a great measure, was probably owing to the vicious and arbitrary system of valuing lands at three different rates, according to the zones in which they were situate, and not according to their real value.

In connection with this wide-spread distress the greatly increased tide of emigration to both Algiers and America attracted momentary attention, but nothing in the shape of official or Parliamentary inquiry into its causes and extent was attempted. During the autumn the press found more congenial occupation in raising questions about the conduct of the Gibraltar garrison, whose sentries were accused of extending the area of their authority, whilst the cannons of the fortress were said to be so placed as to threaten Algeciras.

II. PORTUGAL.

The Cortes, as usual, were opened on January 2; and, from the Speech from the Throne, it was obvious that fiscal questions would form the principal subjects of debate during the Session. On January 14 the Minister of Finance presented his Budget, showing a deficit of about £1,100,000, together with a batch of twenty bills to meet the emergency, abolishing or modifying sundry fiscal services, and creating new sources of revenue. The estimates were warmly criticised by the Opposition press, and the new measures proposed were generally ill received, especially the

Bill proposing an income-tax, which was regarded as an innovation, although recourse had been had to some such measure in the 17th and 18th centuries for war purposes. That it was distasteful to the country at large soon became apparent from the outcry raised against it on all sides. More than three-fourths of the press opposed it, including some of the newspapers that otherwise supported Government, the *Tribuna Popular*, of Coimbra, a *Progressista* sheet, being conspicuous among them.

The Ministry also introduced a number of important Bills; amongst them was one granting to the Northern Railway Company the construction of a railroad from Lisbon to join the main line at Pombal *viâ* Torres Vedras, brought in by the Minister of Public Works; and another, presented by the Minister of Foreign Affairs, submitting to legislative sanction, prior to ratification, the Treaty of May 30, 1879, between Portugal and Great Britain, relative to Laureço Marques (Delagoa Bay), and the suppression of the slave trade on the East Coast of Africa.

Notwithstanding the creation of twenty-six new peers (see last year's "Annual Register," p. 201), of whom by the way only twenty-four took their seats, doubts arose as to Government's ability to get certain of their measures safely through the Upper House; although in the Chamber of Deputies the Ministerial majority was large, and seemed steady.

The debates in both Chambers were animated, and in some cases protracted; but all the Bills were finally passed, with the exception of the two above mentioned.

The Income-tax Bill was entirely remodelled by the Committee. In the original project the provisions were based on a sort of sliding scale according to incomes; whereas in its remodelled form five classes of incomes were established—viz., (*a*) those derived from invested capital; (*b*) from any employment; (*c*) from landed or real estate; (*d*) from commerce and industry; and (*e*) from any other source, when not produced but enjoyed in the kingdom and adjacent islands. A tax of 2 per cent. was imposed for the first four classes; and 3 per cent. for class (*e*), which, by its nature, mostly affected "Brasileiros," i.e., people living on fortunes made in Brazil. All incomes under 150 milreis (about £33) were exempt, to whatever class they might belong. One of the chief objections raised to the Bill was with reference to class (*a*), which, affecting as it did incomes from the public funds, was thought to be a breach of good faith towards investors, on the assumption that public loans were held to be exempt from taxation by an expressed or implied understanding. It, however, eventually became law.

Meanwhile, against the Torres-Vedras Railway Bill the Opposition press made a decided stand. In their opinion it was financially disastrous, whilst its concession had been adjudicated without the legal formality of public competition. The supporters of the measure, on the other hand, argued that, in view of the main line's

original contract, competition was out of the question. At length, however, it passed the Chamber of Deputies, but was ordered to be postponed by the Committee of the House of Peers. A further argument having been put forward, based on agricultural interests and strategical reasons, the Government consented to appoint a Commission of Generals and Engineers to study the whole question, and to report upon the direction to be given to the railroad.

In the discussions on the Laureço Marques Treaty Bill the situations were reversed; the Opposition supporting it, whilst the *Progressistas* (the Ministerial party) attacked it, mainly on account of article 4, section 2 (giving the British Government right to land and embark troops and munitions of war at Laureço Marques, with free passage for them across Portuguese territory); article 5, section c (respecting the right to erect and maintain English bonded warehouses there); and article 12, section 4 (giving large discretionary powers to the Governor of Mozambique to authorise British cruisers to act independently in Portuguese territorial waters for the suppression of the slave trade). They contended that in such matters reciprocity was of no value; that though Government submitted the treaty to the Cortes, in obedience to a constitutional provision, that body was not responsible for it; and that the Portuguese Plenipotentiary having signed the treaty after the late Cabinet had resigned, and before the new one was formed, had acted improperly, as he should have waited in order to know the views of the new Government before signing, especially as he had been a member of the out-going Administration. The Treaty Bill was taken up by the Chamber of Deputies in a secret evening sitting, June 5. The discussion is said to have been very warm; but the only thing authentically known is that the question was adjourned, and the Bill sent to the Committee on Legislation, in order to report as to whether the ordinary Legislature was constitutionally entitled to deal with certain clauses of the treaty. This was virtually an adjournment of the question until the following year; for, after the short prorogation, the Cortes were finally closed on June 7, several of the Ministerial Bills of lesser importance standing over, in the Committees, for next Session.

Government becoming aware, before the secret sitting took place, of the fate that probably awaited the Treaty Bill, thought proper to offer their resignation, and the head of the Cabinet went to the Palace for that purpose; but the King, judging that the occasion did not warrant his accepting, Ministers remained in office. The public press, however, in view of the unusual turn the event had taken, continued to discuss the merits of the case with increasing warmth on both sides; party-spirit at length ran so high, that the *Progressistas* even accused the Portuguese Plenipotentiary of high treason, but by the middle of July the fire of polemics subsided to a few languid sparks flickering at intervals.

1880.] *Portugal.—Ministerial Changes. National Loans.* [223

As to what passed on the subject between the Governments of Portugal and Great Britain it is not yet known to the outer world.

The Marquis of Sabugosa, Minister of the Navy and the Colonies, having persisted in his wish to resign on the plea of ill-health, was, by decree of June 17, relieved of his charge, which was entrusted *ad interim* to Señor Anselmo Braamcamp, President of the Council of Ministers; and later, July 5, Visconde de San Januario entered the Cabinet as Minister of the Navy and Colonies.

By a settlement made in India between the Commissioners of Portugal and England, especially appointed and sent out for the purpose, the difficulties which had arisen respecting the customs for a union between the two Powers in that part of the world (*see* last year's "Annual Register," p. 201), were satisfactorily brought to an end; and its provisions were declared binding from and after January 5.

A three days' festival was held throughout the country to commemorate the third centenary of the poet Camoens, from June 8 to 10. On the 8th the poet's remains were removed processionally from the Convent of St. Anne, and, together with those of Vasco da Gama (which had been conveyed the day before from the town of Vidigueira to the Lisbon Arsenal), were taken by water in procession to Belem, and the urns were deposited in one of the chapels of the splendid Church of the Jeronimos. The great day of the rejoicings was the 10th, celebrated by a civic procession, including representatives of almost all classes and trades; and other festivities which attracted a large concourse from the capital, the provinces, and from abroad.

On the issue of the Portuguese loan of 1879 in Paris last year, the French bondholders of the Miguelite loan of 1832 (which successive constitutional governments had always refused to recognise), endeavoured to prejudice the scheme by advertisements stating that the Portuguese Government was in default. The Portuguese Government at once commenced an action for defamation, and sentence was given by the Paris Court on January 8, acquitting the bondholders. On appeal, not against the result, but against the considerations set forth in the sentence, the acquittal was confirmed by the higher court. The judgment, however, explained that the French law, though providing against the defamation of a foreign sovereign, did not do so when the case affected only the persons of the Government as a collective body. This became a theme for the Opposition press, which blamed Government for having gone to law at all. The latter, in reply, issued *L'Emprunt Dom Miguel (1832) devant le Droit des Gens et l'Histoire*, Paris, 1880, as its justification, and to show that the claim in question had no foundation.

Subsequently the holders of the Miguelite loan (1832) petitioned the French Chamber of Deputies (November) to recom-

mend the Paris Cabinet to interfere with the Portuguese Government in behalf of their claim against the latter; but, after hearing the explanations of the Minister of Foreign Affairs discountenancing the *right* of such a claim, the petition was dismissed.

The success attending the great loan for 8,700,000*l.* nominal (of which 40 per cent. was reserved for subscription in Portugal), and which was issued and more than covered December 20, helped to strengthen the Portuguese Government's position at home.

The supplementary elections (September 7) to fill a few vacant seats in the Chamber of Deputies went, as was anticipated, in favour of Government. The "Regeneradores" made no attempt to contest any of the seats, but gave their votes mostly to the Republican candidates, none of whom, however, were elected. The programme of an ultra-radical candidate (in a district of the capital) proved a complete failure, placing its author at the bottom of the poll. Except the Republicans, the "Constituintes" was the only opposition party in the field; and against their single candidate, no opponent was put forward by the Ministerialists, so that his election was assured. This was partly a compliment paid personally to the talents of the candidate, Señor Pinheiro Chagas, a writer and Parliamentary man of repute; and also because it was an act of generosity which the Government could well afford to display.

In consequence of an outcry in the press against the advent of French Jesuits, a mandate (*portaria*) was issued from the Home Office, November 12, referring to the decree of September 9, 1773, under Pombal (sanctioning the Papal Bull which dissolved the Company of Jesus), and to that of May 28, 1834 (abolishing monastic communities in general), all civil governors were directed to inquire into all cases within their jurisdiction, to inform the Government of any contravention of the decree, and to adopt meanwhile any measures necessary to enforce their observance. There seems, however, to have been but little foundation for the apprehensions entertained, and the subject was gradually allowed to drop.

By virtue of a precedent, based on a former decree of many years back, the Minister of War, Señor Joas Chrysostomo de Abreu e Sousa, took upon himself to decide the long-standing claim of a number of colonels to be placed on the retired list as generals of division. By this course the Budget was not only loaded with a large increase for pensions, but, as a consequence, extensive promotions of subordinate officers ensued. The legality of the original decree had always been contested, and had long remained a dead letter, successive administrations having refused to act upon it. The Ministerial journals were among the first to censure the measure taken by the War Minister, without first advising with his colleagues in the Cabinet, and so Señor de Abreu e Sousa found himself compelled to resign. In his place José Joaquim de Castro,

a peer of the realm and professor in the Army School, a Colonel of Engineers, was appointed on November 21, and by him the decree promoting the Colonels was at once suspended until the Crown lawyers (five in number) should give their opinion. Although three pronounced against its maintenance, and only two in its favour, the Cabinet adopted the latter view, and the measure was at length ratified.

Towards the close of the year it was rumoured that the Government proposed to recommend the nomination of a second batch of new peers, notwithstanding the twenty-six which had been created in the previous year; and on December 30 the Council of State was convoked, the King presiding. The Cabinet submitted a list of sixteen persons for promotion to the peerage, and among them several of no great political prominence. Out of the eleven Councillors, eight voted *against* the proposal, and only three in *favour* of it, one of the latter being the Prime Minister. The King, nevertheless, at the close of the sitting intimated to the Cabinet his determination to accede to its wishes. Of the sixteen new senators introduced into the Upper House, nine held chairs in the University or one or other of the public high schools, two were ex-Ministers of State (Señor Abren e Sousa being one), two were judges, one an ex-Colonial Governor, one the Commissary of the Papal Bull, and only one a man of large property, Señor Carlos Relvas, and not in the receipt of pay from the Public Treasury. The present Cabinet have thus increased the Chamber by 40 members within a year, against 39 made by the “*Reyeneradores*” in the course of the eight years they were in power.

In Colonial affairs many useful and promising reforms were decreed on the proposal of the new energetic Minister of Marine and the Colonies, Viscount de San Januario, formerly Governor of Macao, and Minister to China and Japan, an official thoroughly acquainted with the condition and requirements of the Portuguese, Indian, and African settlements. Even the Opposition press are unanimous in applauding the acts of his as yet short, but fruitful term of office. Amongst these should be especially noticed the seizure and transportation by Señor Sarmento of the notorious Moor, Mucusse Oucar, a Captain-General and dependent of the Sheik of Sancul (East Africa). This officer, in despite of his master's wishes, had given systematic support to the slave trade on the Zanzibar coast, and his capture dealt a heavy blow to that illicit traffic in those parts.

The kings or chiefs of Failacor, of Bibissusso, and of Laicore acknowledged vassalage to the King of Portugal, and paid their homage in June to his Majesty's proxy, the Governor of Timor.

III. BELGIUM.

The jubilee year of Belgian independence, joyfully fêted as it was throughout the country, was, by the strange irony of events, furthermore marked by the loosening of those bonds with the Holy See which the Revolution of 1830 had been supposed to strengthen. Much of the force of the popular movement, at all events in the Flemish provinces, had arisen from the idea that under a Protestant King and a Protestant Cabinet the Catholic subjects of the Sovereign of the United Kingdom of Holland and Belgium must suffer from civil if not from religious disabilities; and on this feeling was based the strength of the Clerical party, which maintained itself in office for so many years after the separation of the two countries. The return of the Liberal party to power after an interval of some years had been, as shown in the previous year's epitome, marked by the carrying of an Education Bill which was destined to test to the utmost the allegiance of both political parties to their respective leaders. M. Frère-Orban, however, the chief of the Liberal party, had succeeded in postponing a crisis, and the year had closed with the belief that a *modus vivendi* would be found, under which the absolute rights of the State would be recognised without violence to the conscientious scruples of the Clerical party.

In the early part of the year, on the discussion of the Budget of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, the suppression of the Belgian legation at the Vatican had been proposed by a fraction of the Left; but M. Frère-Orban produced a number of diplomatic circulars and despatches which displayed so great a desire for conciliation on the part of the Holy See that the ambassador's salary was voted by a large majority. The arguments raised by the opponents to the grant were grounded on the patent fact that, however pacific might be the advice of the Pope, the Belgian clergy acted altogether in opposition to such views. The moderate party, however, carried the day, and the Belgian representative at the Papal Court was maintained. This concession to the legitimate wishes of the Right (or Clerical Opposition) in the two Chambers failed, however, to produce any corresponding forbearance on their part. They bitterly opposed the Budget of the Minister of Public Instruction, in order if possible to render the law of 1879 null and void; and in an even more childish spirit of opposition some members of the party voted against the Budget of the Minister of Foreign Affairs because it included the cost of maintaining a representative at the Court of the King of Italy, whose existence as such they refused to acknowledge.

The Belgian Bishops, however, meanwhile had declared themselves more ready to conform, externally at least, to the wishes

expressed by the Pope that they should take part in the National fêtes, and also that children educated in the State schools should not be excluded from confirmation and the right of communion. The attitude thus assumed by the episcopacy was in conformity with the information conveyed to the Belgian Cabinet by its representative at the Vatican. The Pope, they were assured, whilst giving his approbation to the religious fervour of the Belgian Bishops in all theological matters, had nevertheless declared to M. d'Anethan that they had exceeded the bounds of moderation in their sweeping condemnation of the Education Bill, and by pronouncing pains and penalties upon teachers who worked under it or children who profited by it.

The truce, if it even had any real existence, was soon discovered to be a hollow one. The vote of the Chamber maintaining the Belgian representative at the Vatican had no sooner passed the Chamber of Deputies than the Bishops commenced issuing a series of pastoral letters denouncing the State schools as godless, and claiming for the Church the exclusive right of instruction. M. Frère-Orban promptly grasped the situation, and, without further hesitation, ordered M. d'Anethan to present to the Pope his letters of recall, and a few days later forwarded to Monsignor Vanutelli, the Papal Nuncio, his passports. The Roman Curia struggled to avert this open rupture, but M. Frère-Orban hastened to render it final by the publication of documents which had come into his possession. By these it was shown that on October 5, 1879, the Cardinal Nina, Secretary of State at the Vatican, had expressed to Baron d'Anethan the Pope's regrets that the Belgian Bishops should have entered upon this conflict with the State—"that the prelates had deduced from a just principle conclusions which were alike inopportune and exaggerated, and that the Holy See had never ceased to counsel peace, prudence, and moderation." The Cardinal Secretary further allowed to be understood that the Pope would "lose no opportunity of averting any extreme measure." Such, at any rate, was the impression left upon the Belgian Minister's mind by his conversation with Cardinal Nina. The latter, however, fearing that his views might have been misunderstood, addressed on November 11, 1879, a despatch to the Papal Nuncio at Brussels, Cardinal Vanutelli, which gave a very different colour to his meaning. In it he declared that the Belgian Bishops, in issuing their pastoral letter and giving their instructions to the clergy of their several dioceses, "were only acting in conformity to strict duty. They were of necessity forced to enlighten the faithful, and above all to preserve the youth of the country from the fatal consequences which could not fail to ensue from the carrying out of the Education law. These acts of the Bishops constituted no proclamation of any new theory or new morality; and were but 'une adhésion aux maximes établies par le Saint-Siège pour des cas semblables, maximes ayant leur racine dans la morale Chrétienne, telle quelle est en vigueur depuis qu'il

existe une Eglise de Jésus Christ.'” The despatch went on to brand as a baseless insinuation that there was any misunderstanding on the point between the Holy See and the Belgian episcopacy, and declared the Bishops to be the victims, not the authors, of the strife which had arisen. As soon as this despatch was brought to the cognisance of M. Frère-Orban he peremptorily called upon the Papal Nuncio to explain the divergence between its language and that held by Cardinal Nina, and at the same time held out the threat that unless the despatch were withdrawn, diplomatic relations between Belgium and the Holy See would cease. On November 15 Cardinal Vanutelli requested the Belgian Minister “de considérer sa communication comme non-avenue.” It is possible that even then matters might have calmed down had not the Clerical press, always eager to embitter the quarrel, continued to affirm that the conduct of the Belgian Bishops had throughout been approved by the Pope; and that if it were necessary written evidence could be produced in support of this assertion. On November 21 M. Frère-Orban telegraphed to Baron d’Anethan to obtain from the Papal Secretary of State a clue to this mystery, and at the same time to threaten that if it was found that the latter was playing a double game, the results might be disastrous. Cardinal Nina’s first reply was evasive; but on November 24, in reply to a more peremptory demand from Brussels, M. d’Anethan transmitted the following telegram: “Voici la réponse officielle et textuelle du Cardinal: le langage du Saint-Siège dans ses actes a toujours été le même. Comme l’épiscopat il désapprouve la loi dans ses principes; il a constamment recommandé le calme, la prudence, et la modération.”

M. Frère-Orban expressed himself satisfied with the explanations given, and early in the year, when the Budget of the Minister of Foreign Affairs came on to be discussed in the Chamber of Representatives, he succeeded, as above stated, in retaining the legation at the Vatican.

Unfortunately, a quarrel had broken out between the Bishop of Tournai, Monseigneur Dumont, and his hierarchical superiors, which had ended in the former being violently dispossessed of his see. In return he published, amongst other compromising papers, the secret instructions addressed to the Belgian Bishops by the Archbishop of Mechlen a few days before the Education Bill had been voted in the Senate. In one of these letters there occurred this passage: “The collective pastoral letter as received by you is approved not only in high quarters, but by the Holy Father himself; but His Holiness desires this fact to be kept absolutely secret—*assolutamente segreto*.”

With the publication of so damaging a document the interchange of diplomatic despatches was renewed. The Belgian Government had made up its mind to break off relations with the Vatican; but thought it expedient to prove that this resolution was not only inevitable, but one which had been forced upon it by the

double-dealing of the Vatican. The Roman Curia, on the other hand, had need to explain its policy, and to make its friends and supporters in Belgium believe in its sincerity and singleness of purpose. In its final Memorandum of July 17, 1880, the Cardinal Secretary declared that when the Belgian Cabinet forced the Holy See to choose between "the recall of its legation and the acceptance of unfair conclusions drawn from the exchange of views, the Holy See could not and did not for a moment hesitate to submit to the former alternative and to reject the latter." M. Frère-Orban, in his final rejoinder, naturally laid great stress upon the fact that the document to which appeal was made as explaining the policy of the Vatican was the Memorandum of November 11, 1879, which had been formally withdrawn at the request of Cardinal Nina. The rupture was, however, already complete, for on June 5 M. d'Anethan was recalled from Rome, and on June 29 the Papal Nuncio received his passports and immediately quitted Brussels.

Meanwhile the Government had had to face another religious difficulty, arising from the immigration of the French Jesuits. The law giving a discretionary power to the Government to expel foreigners was on the point of running out, and the Cabinet had to apply for its renewal. The Right naturally supported the principle of the law, but had no wish to see it applied towards the French Jesuits as it had been previously evoked against the Germans when seeking refuge from the effects of the Falck laws. On the other hand, a section of the Liberal party wished to maintain intact the right of free asylum in the country for probably all refugees except religious. M. Bara, the Minister of Justice, however, explained frankly the intentions of the Government in asking for a continuance of the law. It would be applied to the French Jesuits as to all other classes of foreigners whenever they made the Belgian territory "*une pépinière française ou allemande pour combattre plus tard les institutions des pays voisins.*" So long as the French regular clergy were content to live quietly as peaceful citizens, so long would their liberty be respected; but any attempt on their part to do in Belgium what they were forbidden to do in their own countries would, said the Minister, be followed by immediate expulsion. After a short debate the continuance of the law was voted by a considerable majority.

The National fêtes lasted three months from June 15, when the National Exhibition at Brussels was opened in state by the King and Queen. From this, as from all subsequent public ceremonies in connection with the State rejoicings, the Bishops and clergy held themselves ostentatiously aloof. Beyond affording subject for comment in the press, this conduct produced no appreciable results, inasmuch as the National fêtes were celebrated as brilliantly and with as much rejoicing in the Catholic districts as in those in which the Liberals predominated.

The partial elections to the Chamber of Representatives had

been looked forward to with considerable anxiety, as it was important to know how far the other half of the constituencies ratified the change of Ministry which two years previously one-half had forced upon the country. Sixty-eight members in twenty-four districts were elected in the month of June, and the results gave an increase of four to the Liberal majority in the Chamber of Representatives—the Clericals losing seats at Virton, Neufchâteau, Namur, and Bruges. The Opposition or Clerical candidates were successful at Antwerp, Mechlen, and other Flemish towns. The Liberals were therefore now able to reckon on 75 votes in a division against 61.

The Budget for the year 1880–81 presented by the Minister of Finance did not give complete satisfaction, showing as it did a deficit of upwards of half a million sterling, which it was proposed to cover by additional taxes. The revenue of the year was estimated at 263,720,500 francs, and the expenditure at 276,375,086 francs, the former showing a slight decrease and the latter a considerable increase on the figures of the preceding year's Budget.

The announcement of the betrothal of the Princess Stephanie, second daughter of the King of the Belgians, to the Archduke Rudolph of Austria was received with general satisfaction by the organs of all shades of political opinion. The marriage, originally fixed for the spring of 1881, was subsequently postponed on account of the youthfulness of the Princess, who had only just entered her seventeenth year at the time of her betrothal.

IV. THE NETHERLANDS.

Few political events, at home or abroad, occurred during the year to render its course in any way noteworthy. The Coalition Ministry of Baron van Lynden was the object of no serious attack in either Chamber of the States-General, except from the small knot of Kappeyne's personal friends; nor was there any dissatisfaction expressed outside Parliament at the policy of compromise adopted by the Cabinet. The two questions which most occupied the attention of politicians were those relating to a general conscription and an extended suffrage. On the former point the Radical Opposition had attempted to graft upon the scheme of Army Reform proposed by the Government the principle of personal service incumbent upon every citizen. The subject was referred to a Committee of the First Chamber of the States-General, but failed to obtain from that body any decisive expression of opinion. On the question of Parliamentary Reform, based on the principle of universal suffrage, the divergence of opinion was still more marked—Dr. S. van Houten, one of the leaders of the advanced section of the Radical party, separating himself from his colleagues and insisting upon the need of an educational test to be applied to

all who claimed to exercise the franchise. So serious was the breach in the ranks of the Reform party that its representatives in the Chambers abstained from submitting any specific motion on the question to Parliamentary debate.

In the absence of political polemics an opportunity was offered for discussing various social questions, amongst which the elaboration and final passing of a new Criminal Code was the principal achievement. A great deal of discussion arose upon the recommendations of the Netherlands Association for the Moral Elevation of Criminals—a society which had long displayed an intelligent zeal in endeavouring to improve the condition of the criminal class, and to find fitting fields for its misplaced activity. The most striking points urged by the society were—the abolition of imprisonment for life, as weighing unequally upon persons of different ages and leaving no incentive to future good conduct; the extension (especially at the prisoner's request) of the period of solitary confinement, now limited to three years; and the total abolition of the ticket-of-leave system, of which the chief abuse lay in its application to prisoners who had as a rule been too short a time in prison to give any chance of permanent amendment of life and character. The Criminal Code was ultimately passed in the course of the autumn (November 9.)

The Ministry, in addition, brought forward a measure during the summer dealing with the question of intemperance, by which they proposed to limit the number of public-houses to 1 per 500 inhabitants in towns of 50,000 souls; 1 per 400 in towns of 20,000; 1 per 300 in towns of 10,000; and 1 per 250 in all smaller places. Beer and spirit retailers supplying intoxicating liquors to children under sixteen years of age were punishable with imprisonment, and, if to persons already drunk, with fines. The Bill was presented at too late a date in the session to obtain full discussion, but its provisions were generally well received, and legislation in the sense indicated seemed inevitable.

The means suggested by the Government to establish an equilibrium in the Budget partook almost as much of a social as of a financial reform, and naturally called forth much comment. A tax of 2 per cent. was proposed to be levied on the amount of interest derived from all invested capital, based on its actual revenue; but all revenue derived from land, commercial or industrial undertakings, was exempted from its operation.

The Government of Holland and the Luxembourg Administration at last adjusted a difference of very long standing between Holland and the Grand Duchy. When the province of Luxembourg, after the secession of Belgium in 1830, became an independent Grand Duchy, Holland demanded that the new State should share for 4,000,000 florins in the National Debt, and this on the plea that Luxembourg had, from 1815 to 1830, formed part of the kingdom of the Netherlands. Luxembourg denied the claim of Holland, because at the Congress of Vienna it had been recognised

as an independent Grand Duchy, and inasmuch as, in 1839, at the liquidation of the National Debt, Luxembourg's share had been put upon Belgium. Its obligations after 1830 Luxembourg would not have denied had not Holland sold Luxembourg Crown domains of considerable value. All attempts at arbitration having failed for a long time, the two Governments agreed, in the course of the year, to let the matter drop. At the same time it was arranged that the envoys from Holland to the various European Courts should also represent the interests of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg.

Colonial questions as usual occupied a prominent place in the year's history. In the early spring hopes had been entertained that the peace in Sumatra announced last year would be maintained. The successes of General Van der Heyden, who had succeeded the ill-starred General Van Swieten, had been such as to induce the Cabinet to appoint a civil governor for the annexed territory; but the result showed that their hopes were premature, and the military commander was retained. The war party in Atchin was still powerful, and their activity unabated. They relentlessly attacked every chief or stirred up every tribe which had either given allegiance to the Dutch or had showed any disposition to live on friendly terms with the invaders, until at length the Dutch Government found itself forced to intervene with such power as it had at its command to protect the lives and property of its vassals and allies. An expedition against Djambi, an important centre of the Malay power, was planned, but the terrible sickness by which the army was decimated obliged General Van der Heyden to postpone his attack.

The Colonial Budget for 1881, published towards the end of the year, disclosed a more satisfactory and hopeful condition of affairs. The revenue and expenditure were estimated in round numbers at 144 millions of gulden, but there was in reality a slight deficit, though not more than one-sixth of that shown by the previous year's account. The saving arose chiefly upon the military expenditure, which was closely scrutinised by the States-General; and some severe strictures were made upon the military force maintained in the colonies, its cost, administration, and composition. The nominal strength of the Dutch Indian army was given at 1,466 officers, 36,640 non-commissioned officers and men, with 1,281 horse. Of the officers only two were natives. The Indische Genootschap, at the Hague, discussed whether a colonial army with a contingent of 70 per cent. of foreigners, most of them Germans, were at all a desirable institution, and whether Article 185 of the Constitution of 1848 could not be so modified that conscripts might be told off for Indian as well as for home service. As the law now stands, the matter with the men is optional, and the officers of the Dutch colonial army are generally drafted from the inferior classes of students at the military academy of Breda.

The importance of these Eastern colonies was recognised very plainly when the official reports on their condition were made public. From these it appeared that at the end of 1878 the population of Java and Madura consisted of 28,672 Europeans, 198,233 Chinese, 9,379 Arabs, 3,961 divers Eastern foreigners, and 18,567,675 natives; whilst the entire population of the Netherlands Indies was estimated at 40,000,000, or rather more than ten times the number of the population of the Netherlands.

An event of importance in connection with the succession to the throne was the birth, on August 31, of a Princess, who received the name of Wilhelmina Paulina. Prince Alexander, on the death in 1879 of the Prince of Orange, had become heir-apparent to the throne, but was childless and unmarried. His death without issue might have given rise to many complications with regard to the succession, there being few surviving members of the House of Orange. According to the laws of the Netherlands the succession of females to the Crown is not barred, so that possibly the direct line may eventually be maintained through the Princess Wilhelmina.

The calm, however, which overspread political questions did not extend to the religious world. The unveiling of the Spinoza monument had been only one pretext amongst many seized by the so-called orthodox party in the State Church to impose their views upon the Church Synod, but their attempts to enforce uniformity have, as might have been anticipated, resulted in many unpleasant failures. The secessions from the Dutch Reformed Church and the (also Protestant) Église Wallonne in Holland constantly increased. M. Albert Réville, of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and Dr. Allard Pierson, when still popular preachers with the Walloon community of Rotterdam, had seceded some ten years previously. Both are now University teachers, the former at the Collège de France, the latter at the young Amsterdam University. Busken Huet, of a race of distinguished Huguenot preachers, resigned his ministry in the Walloon Church to take the editorship of an Indian Government organ. The Free Kirk movement was set on foot about two years ago by the two brothers Hugenholtz, who had seceded, together with their congregations, from the National Reformed Church. Since then, within a year's time, three of the most distinguished preachers in the Protestant Church have sent in their resignations to the Kerkeraad (Church Council), one with the object of spreading Socialistic views, the two others on conscientious grounds.

V. SWITZERLAND.

In Switzerland, as in the Netherlands, the public mind was more interested in religious and social questions than in any purely political topics. During the year only one canton availed itself of the right accorded by the Federal Diet to re-enact capital punishment; but by far the larger number were content to allow their autonomy to remain dormant, and to trust to the deterrent effects of a penalty which might be now not only pronounced but carried into effect.

Notwithstanding the unfavourable circumstances of the previous year, the Federal Council were able to show an excess of customs receipts of 1,200,000 francs over any previous year. In order, however, to meet certain increased charges, and the conversion of various floating charges voted by the Diet, the Federal Council decided to issue a loan of 35,000,000 francs, reimbursable in thirty-five years. The issue price was fixed at 90½ per cent., and the rate of interest 4 per cent., and the whole sum was more than subscribed within the country.

The religious difficulty which had been created as much by the Geneva Council as by Bishop Mermillod, and which had led to the exile of the latter, seemed at one moment on the point of being brought to a more satisfactory conclusion. The Vatican, although maintaining Bishop Mermillod as Vicar Apostolic of Geneva, appointed Monsignor Cusandy to the reunited dioceses of Lausanne and Geneva, at the same time holding out the hope that at some future time Bishop Mermillod might be translated to another see. In return the Grand Council, without making any overt alteration in the existing laws, decided to allow the cantonal authorities considerable liberty in the interpretation, in a liberal sense, of the existing enactments with regard to the parochial clergy. The same body, at a later period, and in view of the possible results of the expulsion of the French Jesuits, took steps to prevent their establishing themselves on Swiss territory except under legal restrictions already existing. The matter, however, was not destined to end thus.

The Grand Council of the canton of Geneva, in the month of June, passed a law suppressing the "Budget des Cultes," declaring the Church to be completely independent of the State. This vote had been obtained by an alliance between the Catholics, the orthodox (Free Church) Protestants, and the "Libre-Penseurs." The National Church Protestants and the Liberal Catholics, of both which parties the clergy were in receipt of State pay, opposed this proposal to the utmost, urging that a law of this nature by implication abrogated the constitutional rights conceded in 1873 to the people to elect their own clergy. Under the circumstances a *Referendum* became necessary, and the popular vote taken

on July 4 was briefly one on the separation of Church and State. Thirteen thousand electors out of an electoral roll of 17,000 took part in the vote, and of these upwards of 9,000 were against the proposed schism, which most regarded as favourable to the Ultramontanists rather than to the moderate party. Undeterred by this check, the Grand Council of Geneva a few weeks later adopted a law under which no election of a priest in a Catholic commune by less than one-fourth of the parishioners would be valid. An appeal against this decision was laid before the Federal Tribunal, but that body declared that, no constitutional principle being involved, it was incompetent to interfere; although it was obvious from the first that the application of the law would be to virtually disestablish the Liberal Catholic Church, inasmuch as in no commune is that party represented by one-fourth of the registered electors.

The policy adopted by the Grand Council of Geneva was, however, shortly afterwards submitted to a crucial test. With the month of November the regular elections to that body came round. They resulted in the complete overthrow of the moderate party, solely on the ground of its attitude towards disestablishment. M. Carteret and the whole Radical list were supported by a large majority. This vote can be interpreted in no other way than as a protest of the Protestant party against the concessions which they conceived had been made to the Ultramontanes, and as a determination of the majority to maintain the connection of Church and State, either with the view of governing the former or of proclaiming the still persistent hostility between the latter and the Vatican.

Amongst the measures laid by the Government before the Federal Parliament was one proposing to deprive the cantonal banks of the power of issuing paper money without restriction. The Government desired to force every cantonal Government to see that the banks of issue within its jurisdiction possessed an adequate reserve of coin and specie in proportion to the amount of their notes in circulation. As in all similar attempts to limit cantonal rights, the debates turned rather upon local privileges than upon the economic worth of the proposal. No definite conclusion was arrived at by the Federal Diet; but a certain degree of popular excitement was aroused, and ultimately found its expression in a requisition, signed by upwards of 50,000 persons, demanding a popular vote for an amendment of the Constitution empowering the State to suppress all private issues of notes, and that the only bank-notes issued in the Confederation should be those of the Federal State Bank. The project in the Diet had been strongly opposed by the Catholic members, and when, by the popular vote, it was found that their views coincided with those of the French and Italian cantons, as well as with those of the mercantile classes in the German-speaking districts, the proposal was finally rejected by 248,997 against 119,297 in its favour—a large

number, however, considering that the Socialist party and a few doctrinaires had been supposed to be alone favourable to the change.

The piercing of the St. Gothard route, although a year's work was requisite before the tunnel could become available for traffic, afforded further evidence of the practicability of such schemes. At the same time it made it clear that, unless the French cantons of Switzerland were disposed to see the whole of the carrying trade between Italy and Northern Europe pass through Germany, some steps must be taken to utilise the Simplon route in which their interests were centred. Overtures were made to the Simplon railway company, which is a French undertaking and connected with the line running along the southern (French) shore of the lake of Geneva. The French Government, while recognising the advantages which would accrue to French interests from another Alpine railway, declined to commit itself to any specific subsidy until the ideas of Italy were known, and it was ascertained how far that country would co-operate in the proposed undertaking. They promised, however, to assist in bringing the matter before an International Conference, and to investigate meanwhile any alternative routes which might present themselves.

The Swiss Head-quarters Staff, having been charged by the Government to draw up a report on the national defences, recommended that the most urgent works were those on the line of the Jura, menaced alike by France and Germany. The Committee discussed the various schemes proposed, some of which would entail an expenditure of 200,000 francs, but the Government eventually shelved the question, finding that there was a strong divergence of opinion as to the need of Switzerland erecting defensive works of such magnitude, the sole object of which would be to protect her neutrality in the event of war between her neighbours.

According to an official statement, the effective strength of the Swiss Federal Army on January 1, 1880, amounted to 119,947 men, as against 119,748 in the previous year. The Landwehr at the later date comprised 95,116 men, as against 95,338 in 1879. The numbers required by the existing law were 105,388 men in the regular army and 97,012 in the Landwehr; or altogether 212,400; so that the actual total at present, 215,063, is in excess of the legally prescribed minimum.

A curious request was presented to the Federal Council by a Swiss shipowner at Leghorn to be allowed to hoist the Federal flag. After some deliberation it was decided that, as Switzerland possesses no navy or means of making her flag respected, permission should not be granted.

VI. NORWAY.

The year of 1880 opened with every sign of coming disquiet on the political horizon. The general election of members for the Storting, which took place in the autumn of the preceding year, had resulted in a great gain for the Radical party. The numbers by which its ranks were recruited, and the influence which it exercised on the public through the press and its representatives, were important and significant facts to which the Government and the Conservative party could no longer shut their eyes. The growing tendency to Radicalism during recent years had not, of course, escaped the attention of the Government and its supporters, but they only considered this agitation as a mere ripple on the hitherto smooth-flowing stream of Norwegian political life, and they confidently expected that tranquillity and contentment would soon again predominate. Such anticipations proved erroneous. The Radical party not only increased in number and strength, but, in the session of 1880, their majority in the Storting, under the leadership of Mr. Johan Sverdrup, the President of the National Assembly, showed a determination to use their influence and power to the full extent.

Outside the Storting they had lost no opportunity of influencing public opinion. Through their several organs and by public meetings they freely ventilated and openly discussed their aims and aspirations. One of the most important additions to their political literature was a pamphlet entitled "From my Lectures on the Republic," by Björnstjerne Björnson, the celebrated Norwegian poet, a prominent leader of the Republican party. This pamphlet had an unusually large circulation, and could not but increase the political ferment, especially in the country districts.

Future historians will have to investigate and settle whether the present state of affairs in Norway is not the logical outcome of the political condition created by the Norwegian Constitution of 1814; and the elections of 1882 will have to solve the question whether a Conservative Government can retain power and office in a country with a free constitution like Norway when the majority of the representative body is openly Radical.

The Storting of 1880 was opened on February 11 by King Oscar II. in person. The Speech from the Throne contained little of importance beyond the usual announcements of different Bills which would be brought forward by Government.

The attention of the Diet specially centred itself in the great constitutional question which had so long been a bone of contention between the executive and the legislature.

Two Storthings, after two successive elections, had passed, by great majorities, a proposed amendment in the fundamental law

(Grundlov), that the members of the Government should take part in the proceedings of the Storthing, but each time the King, by the advice of his Ministers, had refused his sanction. This resolution was again brought before the Storthing early in the session, and carried by an overwhelming majority of 93 out of 113, on March 17. The King, on receiving the amendment for signature, took a long time before announcing his decision. It was now the third time that he was made aware of the will of the Norwegian people through its representatives. He proceeded to Christiania to consult personally with eminent political men there. A deputation of the majority in the Storthing waited upon the King during his stay in Christiania, and petitioned him to ratify the amendment of the Grundlov. It was generally expected that the King would inform the Storthing of his final decision before leaving the Norwegian capital, but he returned to Stockholm without doing so, and it was only on May 29 that he, at the advice of his Ministers, for the third time refused to sanction the amended law.

This news created not only a storm amongst the Radical party in the Storthing, but a feeling of general disappointment seemed to pass over the whole country, many even of the Right in the Storthing regretting the King's decision.

The President, Mr. Johan Sverdrup, promptly brought the question to an issue by proposing to the Storthing that the amendment of the Grundlov, which had been passed by it, should be declared valid without the King's consent, as there was nothing in the Constitution of 1814 which showed that the King's sanction was necessary to an amendment thrice carried in three successively elected Storthings. The President's proposal was carried by a large majority on June 9, and the resolution of the Storthing was forwarded to the King and his Government; but the King, in reply, declared that he could not recognise the validity of the resolution, and would abide by his right of using his absolute veto. He requested at the same time the Faculty of Law at the Christiania University to give their opinion if he, according to the Constitution of the country, had not the right of absolute veto in matters concerning amendments of the Grundlov. No formal announcement has yet been made of the conclusion at which the Faculty has arrived, but there is a general belief that its decision will admit that the absolute veto, which up to the present time has been recognised as belonging to the King, really is his, though not expressly stated in the Grundlov, but that it "lies in the principles of monarchy." The present Government appears in any case to think that it cannot exist without the absolute veto.

This important matter was left at this point on the prorogation of the Storthing on June 23, after having been assembled for nearly five months, the longest session on record since yearly Storthings came in force. The question, if not previously decided, will probably be kept open until 1882, when the Storthing may

avail themselves of its right of having the question settled before the "Rigsret," or the High Court of the Realm, consisting of the members of the High Court of Justice in Christiania, and the Lagthing (the Upper Chamber of the Storthing). The functions of the "Rigsret" are strictly limited to trials of offences against the State, and in this case the Ministers of the King will probably be impeached. The King of Norway is, according to the Grundlov, irresponsible for his actions.

The proposed reorganisation of the army is another point in which the Storthing and the Government are at variance. The former, before the close of the session, appointed a committee of its own to inquire into the question and to report its recommendations after recess. The Government at once refused to recognise the legality of the steps taken by the Storthing.

To satisfy public opinion, however, the Government appointed a military committee, in which the whole of the committee of the Storthing was included, supplemented by three military officers. The members of the Storthing's committee, acting under the guidance of the President, refused, however, to sit on this new committee, and, notwithstanding the Government's refusal of recognising the Storthing's committee, the President summoned it last autumn to meet at Christiania. The attitude assumed by the Government induced two of the officers to withdraw from the committee of inquiry, but the third military member of the Storthing's committee, Captain Jacobsen, attended without permission from the military authorities, the consequence of which was that Captain Jacobsen was forced to resign his commission in the army, obtaining no pension. The Government now appointed a new committee of its own, and thus there are two committees working at the same time at the solution of the question of the reorganisation of the army. This will also, no doubt, give rise to further conflicts between the Government and the Storthing during the coming session. A committee was also appointed to consider whether an extension of the principle of protection or the retention of the present customs tariff was the more beneficial to native industry. Several important Acts were passed during the session. Amongst these must be mentioned the new Bill of Exchange Act, founded upon a similar Act which had been passed during the year in Sweden and Denmark. This Act is spoken of very favourably by several foreign authorities in such matters, and it is even predicted that it may become the basis for a new international law between all civilised nations. Another important Act, according to the rights of religious liberty to officials under the Crown, was also passed, absolute conformity to the Lutheran State Church having been hitherto indispensable; the members of the Cabinet and judges must, however, still belong to the State Church. The Government was enabled by means of a State railway loan of six millions of Kroner to show an equilibrium in their Budget estimates. The Storthing, however, by means of considerable reductions in the

proposed expenditure, especially in the naval and military estimates, provided the Government with an actual surplus.

Mr. Stang, the Prime Minister, who for nearly a generation has presided in the King's Council, was on account of failing health obliged to resign in October last. Mr. Stang was held in great esteem by all classes, notwithstanding his ultra-Conservative principles. Public opinion pointed to Mr. Sibbern, the ambassador in Paris, as his successor, but the overtures which were made to induce him to enter the Ministry as its chief failed on account of certain conditions which he stipulated before accepting the post. Mr. Selmer, a member of Mr. Stang's Cabinet, was ultimately appointed Prime Minister, and he intends, to all appearances, to carry out the policy of his predecessor. The unfinished portion of the important line of railway between Christiania and Throndhjem was completed this year. The last remaining section from Eidsvold to Hamar, a distance of thirty-five English miles, was opened by the King in October. Thus, what was once considered one of the most improbable lines of railway in Europe, one over the Dovrefjeld, connecting the modern metropolis of Christiania with the ancient capital of Throndhjem, has been successfully accomplished. The total mileage of the line is fifty Norwegian miles, or 350 English miles.

A most interesting archæological discovery was made in the neighbourhood of Sandefjord, on the Christiania Fjord, during the early part of the year. A large mound, called the "King's Hill," was excavated, and an old Viking ship in a most perfect state of preservation was found. The vessel contained a large number of articles, weapons and implements, which will aid antiquarians in throwing light upon the life and customs of the old Norsemen. This unique piece of antiquity dates from the period called the "Younger Iron Age," and must be rather more than 1,000 years old.

Trade and shipping has greatly improved during the present year after the long and serious depression of the last five years.

VII. SWEDEN.

Sweden, like her sister land Norway, has passed through a year full of political interest. Not a few of the more timid and despondent amongst her peaceful inhabitants look back with anxiety to the past and with apprehension to the future. The bold and hopeful, on the other hand, look upon the changes of the year 1880 as the starting-point of reforms which will prove only beneficial to the country at large.

The Riksdag opened on January 17, and amongst the Bills laid before the Assembly by the Government was one for the reform of the military system of the country, placing the liability to service on a footing something similar to the German system.

The Prime Minister, Friherre de Geer, made the final passing of this bill a Cabinet question, on which he staked the existence of his Ministry. For the people, however, it was a life question, and from them the bill met with strenuous opposition, resulting in their complete triumph. On April 12 the bill was finally rejected by the Second Chamber, by a majority of 121 out of 196. The de Geer Ministry forthwith resigned, and, as was generally anticipated, the King entrusted the formation of the new Ministry to Count Arvid Posse, the President of the Second Chamber, and the former leader of the "Landtmanna" party.

The Swedish "Landtmanna" party was formed in January 1867, shortly after the passing of the new Act under which the Diet was constituted on its present basis. It consisted really of the larger and smaller peasant proprietors, who in the time of the old "Ständers-Riksdag" were always opposed to the nobility and the clergy. The object of this party was to bring about a fusion between the representatives of the proprietors of the larger landed estates and the peasant proprietors, to support the interests of landed proprietors in general against those of the town representatives, and to resist the influence of the Crown in the administration of local affairs. In order to understand this alliance, it must be borne in mind that within the Riksdag, at least, the antagonism has been rather between town and country, than between opposed parties of more or less liberal opinions. Of late years the peasants have been the governing majority in the "Landtmanna" party; formerly it was the larger landed proprietors who were its leaders, especially Count Posse, the original founder of the party. Count Posse had consequently been regarded as the inevitable chief of any new Ministry, should the de Geer Cabinet be overthrown; and within a week of the rejection of the Army Bill, he and his colleagues in the new Ministry had received their portfolios. It could not, however, be said that the members of the new Cabinet were all supporters of the principles of the "Landtmanna" party. Several of the late Ministry had passed into the new, but this coalition did not last long; Mr. Malmström, Minister of Education, being succeeded on August 27 by Mr. Hammarskiöld, one of the three consultative Councillors of State, and on December 4 Mr. Forssell, Minister of Finance since 1875, resigned. The reason alleged for his withdrawal was his objection to certain new customs duties for the protection of inland interests, passed by the previous Riksdag. Count Posse himself assumed the direction of the Finance Department.

The change in the Ministry was soon followed by a scarcely less important event. One of the first acts of the new Government had been to appoint two committees to consider the question of national defence. The members of the committee were selected chiefly from the personal supporters of the Prime Minister, and from the majority. The recommendations of a committee so

chosen would necessarily influence the decision of the Riksdag, and thereby Parliamentary government, in a fashion not acknowledged by the Swedish fundamental law, would have been inaugurated. The question, therefore, was presented to the nation whether the majority in the Second Chamber (which, it must be borne in mind, was not at present a political party, but a class party, with class prejudices and class interests), should become possessed of the executive and administrative powers, and whether a new and important political departure in Swedish constitutional history should date from the fortuitous union of two bodies whose fundamental interests were obviously antagonistic. The only remedy which suggested itself at once to any influential section of the public, was the extension of the franchise, in favour of which an agitation was set on foot during the autumn, the leaders of which openly declared its aim to be the breaking down of class influence and the substitution of party government.

No bills of any importance were passed during the session, with the exception of an Act permitting civil marriage before the municipal authorities. The supporters of agricultural protection succeeded in imposing an import duty on flour and potatoes, while the trade protectionists had to be satisfied with the hopes they could draw from an extension of the customs committee. The Riksdag was prorogued on May 15.

The budget submitted by the Minister of Finance estimated the revenue and expenditure each at 74,710,000 Kroner, the latter including the deficit on the previous year's budget, amounting to about one and a half millions of crowns.

Three lines of railway were opened during the year, the one being the State railway between Jerfsö and Ljusdal; the other two private lines between Borås and Varberg, and between Krylbo and Hedemora. The continuation of Norra Stambanen was proposed, but so far has not received the support of the Government.

The economical state of the country was not encouraging. Trade suffered from a general depression, but the good harvest and the improved prospects in the iron and the timber trades towards the end of the year gave hopes of a revival of life and activity in all trades and in the industrial enterprises of the country.

An important congress of Scandinavian naturalists (the twelfth) and the fourth Northern School Conference were held in Stockholm during the summer, when the increasing friendly feeling between the three northern peoples manifested itself.

On May 29 Professor Nordenskjöld and his brave companions returned to Stockholm in the "Vega," after an absence of two years, and after having successfully completed the North-East Passage round Europe and Asia, a feat which shed additional lustre on Swedish men of science and Swedish sailors.

VIII. DENMARK.

Although the year 1880, like its predecessor, has been comparatively free from the violent conflicts and serious complications which characterised its home politics between the years 1875 and 1878, it will be recorded in the annals of the political history of Denmark as one which saw the final settlement of several important legislative questions. Of these the most important were the Army and the Navy Reorganisation Bills, which had been yearly before the Rigsdag since 1872, and which formed an important part of the programme of the Estrup Ministry. These, with other bills, were, as usual, laid before the Diet on its assembling in October, 1879, but during the commencement of the session there was no more prospect of these bills being passed than in former years, when quite unexpectedly an agreement was arrived at between Mr. Ravn, Minister of Marine, who had charge of the bill, and the moderate party with regard to the Navy Reorganisation Bill. The result of this compromise was an Act which was finally passed on May 12. At one moment the bill, on its second reading, had been in some danger of being rendered inoperative by a proposal that it should only come into operation in the event of the Army Bill being passed. This unreasonable condition, however, was eventually overruled by aid of the Radicals on the third reading. By the passing of this bill several much needed improvements will be introduced in the Navy. The number of ships and men, officers and crew, which both have long been insufficient, will be considerably increased. For instance, the number of lieutenants is increased from forty-seven to sixty, and the corps of engineers, artillery, and marines will be considerably augmented. The number of the larger ships was fixed at twelve, but the constitution of the class was left for the present undecided upon. A proportionate increase in the number of smaller ships was at the same time agreed upon; and the yearly contingent of men required for naval services was raised from 700 to 900. Training ships for 1,200 men are also to be fitted out every year, for a cruise of six months. The Ministry was not less successful with their Army Bill, which passed within a few days of the close of the session, but only after a great deal of opposition from the Radical party, whose leader, Mr. Berg, by unsuccessfully proposing several amendments, whilst refusing all amendments from other sections of the Chamber, prolonged the settlement of the question. Thus it was the moderate party who, to the surprise of the Radicals and the general public, had at length brought in an Army Bill which promised to be generally acceptable. The bill had been the result of prolonged negotiations between the moderate party and General Thomson, the late Minister of War, and the leader of the Right on all military topics. The new measure was, in reality, little more than a supplement to the Army Bill of 1867. It was introduced in the Folkething by the

Moderates on July 14, and in the course of eight days was read a third time in that Chamber; passed the Landsting on the 24th, and was sanctioned by the King on the 25th of the same month, the thirtieth anniversary of the celebrated battle of Isted. The main feature of this bill was the increase of the infantry of the line from twenty battalions to thirty, as well as a proportionate increase in the artillery and the cavalry, whilst by curtailing the service in garrison and the time for drilling considerable saving of money was effected.

The new Army and Navy Bills did not exactly satisfy what the public had expected or desired, but the feeling of relief that these questions, which for such a length of time had occupied public attention, had at last been settled was general, more especially as the basis of their solution had been a compromise acceptable to both political parties.

The supplementary question of the national defences was not brought before the Rigsdag during the year, time failing for the adequate discussion of so momentous a question.

The passing of the Scandinavian Bills of Exchange Act, which had also been passed during the year in Norway and Sweden, gave great satisfaction in mercantile circles. On June 24 a bill for the purchase, by the Government, of the Zealand Railways was carried; a matter of great economical and national importance in the future.

Mr. Fisher, the Minister of Education, was hardly so satisfied with the achievements of the session as some of his colleagues. In vain he had tried to carry through a bill which provided an endowment for the University, and an education bill. For the latter he had depended upon the support of the Radicals, but the relations between that party and the Government were as distant as ever, and Mr. Fisher failed to effect any salutary reform in his department; he therefore resigned on August 24, and was, to the surprise of many, succeeded by Mr. Scavenius.

Out of one of the by-elections arose no small stir and discussion amongst the general public and in the press. The electors of Langeland had by a large majority made choice of Dr. E. Brandes, who was put forward both as a Radical representative and a new politician.¹ Dr. Brandes was well known for his advanced ideas in religious matters, and when he at a meeting was questioned on this point, he openly declared that he believed neither in the God of the Christians nor of the Jews. In consequence of this statement an agitation, similar to that which took place in England against Mr. Bradlaugh in the early part of the year, was set on foot to prevent his taking his seat in the Rigsdag.

According to the rules for taking the oath by members of the Danish National Assembly, a printed form of oath was sent by the

¹ Dr. Brandes, himself a distinguished *littérateur*, is the brother of the celebrated Danish author and critic, Professor Geo. Brandes, author of the *Life of Lord Beaconsfield*, which was published a couple of years ago.

President to Dr. Brandes, but the former, probably influenced by the discussions in the public press, or impressed with the serious responsibility which Dr. Brandes took upon himself if he subscribed the usual formula, accompanied it by a letter in which he pointed this out to Dr. Brandes' notice, and requested him to abstain from signing the document. Dr. Brandes, however, promptly signed the formula and returned it to the President, at the same time repudiating the right of the President to interfere with him with regard to his religious belief. This letter created some surprise, but there was apparently no other choice left to Dr. Brandes, if he wished to take his seat, there being as yet no Affirmation Act in Denmark. The Radicals attempted to pass a vote of censure on the President for not having sent the oath formula at once to Dr. Brandes without any comment, but this vote was lost in the Rigsdag. These debates resulted in the introduction of two amendments in the form of the Parliamentary oath, the discussion of which is reserved for the present Rigsdag, although it is not expected that the question will be settled in one session.

From the few by-elections which took place during the year, the state of parties in the Rigsdag was little, if at all, altered when the session opened in the autumn. The Government had prepared a great amount of legislative work for the present Rigsdag, which, however, had not made much progress at the close of the year. The finances of the country, judged from the annual financial budget of 1879-80, and the budget estimates of 1880-81, are in a very satisfactory state; the financial estimate for the year ending March 31, 1880, showing a surplus of about five and a half million Kroner (300,000*l.*)

The condition of trade and agriculture throughout the country in 1880 was very favourable. The harvest was on the whole good. The prices were high, and the money market was well supplied. As a result of the successful discovery of the North-East Passage by Professor Nordenskjöld may be mentioned that a large Siberian trading company was formed by Danish capitalists in Copenhagen in December last. As will be remembered, Professor Nordenskjöld had a most enthusiastic reception at Copenhagen on his way home to Stockholm in April.

CHAPTER VI.

ASIA.

INDIA AND AFGHANISTAN.

THE beginning of the year found our garrison at Cabul freed indeed from the danger with which Muhammed Jan and his great levies of tribesmen had menaced it, but by no means free from alarms of further attack. In fact, until the place was finally

evacuated hardly a fortnight passed without a rumour of hostile preparation, now at Ghazni, now in the districts in the immediate neighbourhood of Cabul, now at some point along the line of communications with India; and though in many instances the movements reported did not grow to a head, there is no reason to suppose that the reports exaggerated the condition of ferment which prevailed in regions affected by our neighbourhood. One personal matter arising from the events of December created a good deal of excitement in India. General Massey, who had been in command in the disastrous engagement which preceded the retirement to Sherpur, was removed from the command of the Cavalry Brigade at Cabul, not only on the ground that in that affair he had failed to carry out the orders given to him, but, it was alleged, because he had failed to make an efficient use of his cavalry in the earlier operations at the capture of Cabul. Much sympathy was expressed for the recalled officer, both in military circles and in the Press; and his subsequent appointment to a divisional command in India was understood as an admission on the part of the Commander-in-Chief that the degree of censure implied in the order of recall was undeserved.

As to General Roberts, the Government of India expressed their approval of his conduct, declaring that the concentration of the scattered posts at Sherpur was judicious, and that the subsequent conduct of the defence was admirable. In the Press there was, of course, a good deal of less favourable criticism. The policy of executions, it was alleged, had provoked risings, while the steps taken on the approach of the insurgents showed either a grievous want of information as to their number and character or culpable temerity. Had the insurgent leader been sagacious enough to see his opportunity, he might, it was said, have overpowered the feeble force left to guard Sherpur before General Roberts had made good his retreat to it. Later on it was acknowledged that a commander who was uniformly successful must have had something more than luck to go on, and even in January disparaging criticism was the exception.

But General Roberts, whether acting on his own ideas or under the orders of the Government, seemed to be taking measures to remove all ground of censure in the future. The forts and buildings round the cantonments of Sherpur—so far as they were likely to interfere with its defence—were removed; roads were opened up in every direction, and before we finally left Cabul new fortifications of the most substantial and elaborate kind had been erected, not only on the Bala Hissar, but on other heights which commanded Cabul and the approaches thereto. While precautions were thus taken against attack, pains were taken to impress on the people that the period of chastisement was to be succeeded by one of conciliation. A durbar was held at Cabul soon after the dispersion of the insurgents, which was attended by a good many chiefs who were more than suspected of having been

among the instigators of the movement. Among others came the notorious Padshah Khan, the chief whose influence was dominant among the Ghilzais between Cabul and the Shuturgardan Pass, and who had alternately been an active friend and active foe. An amnesty was proclaimed to all persons concerned in the recent rising, except three leaders specified by name and the murderers of the old Afghan we had sent as Governor to the Maidan district, and under this proclamation a great many of the persons implicated "came in." Afghan notables, who were believed to be acceptable to the people, were sent as governors to the various districts round Cabul, and the chief deputed to Kohistan—the most turbulent district of all—managed at least to hold his own. At Cabul itself, the military governorship which had been held by General Hills was abolished, and the town was placed under the control of Wali Muhammed as Civil Governor. This Sirdar was a half-brother of the late Amir Shir Ali, and it was hoped at one time that he might, while rendering our temporary sojourn less distasteful to the Afghans, win for himself such influence as would justify us in recognising him as Amir. But, whether from defect of energy or of intelligence, he succeeded so ill that he never professed to be able to rule without the authority of a British force to back him; and when the time for leaving came, he was glad enough to accompany our forces to India, having, if report be true, so far utilised his opportunities as Governor as to have accumulated a fortune ample enough to render even exile sweet. His rule, at any rate, was not conspicuous by any great zeal for the interests of the Power which befriended him. Almost immediately after the beleaguering of Sherpur, General Daud Shah, who had been with our garrison, was deported to India, having been suspected of slackness in helping the authorities. But the Mustaufi Habibulla, who had also been suspected of complicity in the September rising, was taken into favour, and for some time was used as an intermediary in negotiations with the irreconcilables at Ghazni. For to this place Mushk-i-Alam, Muhammed Jan, and the other discomfited leaders of the December rising had betaken themselves. It is not easy to describe in a few words what their objects were. Muhammed Jan was a military adventurer, who for the moment represented the Afghan idea of hostility to the invader, and who, though he disclaimed any authority but that of one who ruled till "the Amir came," was understood to be willing to accept any solution which would assure him a substantial ascendancy. Mushk-i-Alam was a fanatic and patriot pure and simple, anxious chiefly for the deliverance of a land of Islam from the Infidel. There were members of the family of Dost Muhammed there, who had, of course, their own personal objects to serve. But, for the time being, all affected to be champions of the cause of Yakub Khan, whom, they contended, General Roberts had treacherously got into his power and bullied into abdication. They had with them Yakub's young son Musa

Jan, and round this had gathered henceforth all who were hostile to the English *régime*, or any *régime* which had the sanction of the Englishman. There can be no doubt of the sincerity of the sympathy shown for Yakub Khan. Thus, in the middle of January, the Mohmands—a tribe which may roughly be said to occupy the country between the Khaibar Pass and Jelalabad—rose and tried to cross the river. Troops were hastily sent from Lundi Kotal to repel them, but on arrival they found that the small detachment at the place had already driven back the tribesmen, who were believed to number at least 5,000. Subsequently much hostility was shown to a new chief whom we had recognised or installed at Lalpura. The immediate cause of these risings was said to be the preaching of fanatical Mollas, but the sentiment on which they worked was that of sympathy with Yakub Khan, and with his father-in-law, Yahiya Khan, a Mohmand chief, who, like a good many other notables, had lately been deported to India.

The malcontents at Ghazni were much strengthened by the co-operation of Hasan Khan, who had been Governor of Jelalabad during Yakub's brief reign, and had absconded after his patron became our prisoner. He was unremitting in his efforts to stir up against us the tribesmen of the Logar and Zurmat districts. Long after, his unrelenting activity was shown in his presence with Ayub Khan at the battle of Candahar, and his efforts after that great defeat, as Ayub's Governor in the districts on the Western border. Happily for the peace of Cabul, soon after the retreat of Muhammed Jan and his Wardak tribesmen from Cabul, an old feud between the Wardaks and the Hazaras blazed out afresh. The Hazaras, it seems, had taken the opportunity of their absence to attack the Wardak villages, and had even for a time held Ghazni in our interest. The fighting which followed the return of the Wardaks for a time diverted Muhammed Jan's attention from his British foes. We shall see again how these Hazaras helped General Stewart in his march from Candahar, apparently for no better reason than this: that the Wardaks, who were our foes, were theirs also.

There were perpetual rumours of messages sent by the Ghazni faction even to Ayub Khan at Herat; to Abdurrahman in Russian Turkestan; to the tribesmen in the Western regions of the Candahar Province, and to the tribes at every point of contact with the British army of occupation. Round the leaders gathered slowly not only fanatical tribesmen but the broken remnants of Shir Ali's soldiery. They controlled the road from Cabul to Ghazni; their outposts appeared on the crest of the passes which led to the Cabul basin. Dates were fixed on which the great attack was to be renewed—first in February, and again in March. By this time, however, communications had been perfected with India; not only had ample supplies been accumulated, but constant reinforcements were being sent. So that at the time when the negotiations which preceded our evacuation commenced, the

Cabul garrison alone numbered 20,000 men, a force which could have held the fortifications against all comers. In January General Bright had marched with a compact column from Jelalabad to the Lughman Valley, the country of Asmatulla Khan, the old Ghilzai "fox," whose intrigues and turbulence had been the cause of much of our trouble. Asmatulla had fled after the failure of the December rising, and our troops were everywhere in the valley received with respect and almost with welcome. The result was to settle a disturbed district, to make it available as a source of supplies, and to open an alternative route from Jelalabad to Jagdalak.

The task of clearing out the elements of disturbance from Ghazni was left to General Stewart and his troops at Candahar. Candahar, it must be remembered, had hardly been evacuated when the news of the massacre of the Mission at Cabul compelled our garrison to return there. Thus the troops had been detained on service since they first marched up in 1878—and as native troops always do, when absent long on foreign service, they sickened for the bazaars of India and their homes. It was therefore decided—a momentous decision in the light of subsequent events—to send up Bombay troops to relieve these Bengal regiments; and as they had had little fighting, and work might have to be done at Ghazni, it was thought desirable that they should proceed to India by Ghazni and Cabul, instead of returning by Quetta and the Bolan.

But meanwhile negotiations had been tried from Cabul. Whatever views of policy were entertained by critics—and many urged that Cabul, or at any rate the country up to Jelalabad, should be permanently annexed—Government, that is to say the Conservative Government, had by this time permitted it to be understood that it was willing to recognise as Amir any fit and friendly Sirdar—Yakub, of course, excepted—whom the representatives of the people might choose. The delay in declaring definitely whom we proposed to recognise as Amir added much even to the temporary difficulties of the situation. Shrewd Afghans remarked that those who had befriended us before had suffered for it when we had gone; they remembered, too, that deportation to India had been of late the fate of a good many of those who were once our *protégés*. Thus we lost the interested support which a definite promise might have secured; while the purely patriotic Afghans, whose one wish was to be rid of us, and who would have been conciliated had we convinced them of the sincerity of our wish to withdraw, kept sullenly aloof. Annexation, pure and simple, seemed to many of the Sirdars the simplest solution. Many, they said, would join us if they were once convinced that we would not abandon them, and a few sharp lessons would soon reduce the rest to submission to an obvious Providence. Others, on the other hand, thought that the presence of Englishmen would be a perpetual irritant, and that even English support or recognition would

deprive an Afghan candidate of the sympathy of the patriotic party. The situation meanwhile was becoming strained. While Government was waiting for a friendly and orderly native *régime* to evolve itself from the chaos of intrigue and turbulence, the cost of the occupation was all but intolerable. Early in the year it was announced that Abdurrahman, the nephew and the defeated rival of Shir Ali, who had long been a Russian pensioner in Turkestan, had disappeared. By the middle of March constant rumours that he had crossed the Oxus into Afghan-Turkestan produced great excitement at Cabul.

About the end of March, Mr. Lepel Griffin, who had been Secretary to the Punjab Government, arrived at Cabul, and as Chief Political Officer for Northern and Eastern Afghanistan, virtually superseded General Roberts in the control of political relations. He took an early opportunity of assuring the Sirdars that it was considered advisable to re-separate Afghanistan into its old constituent provinces; that as regards Cabul and Afghan-Turkestan, the British army would withdraw as soon as a leader, acceptable to the Afghans, friendly to our allies, and strong enough to keep the country in peace, could be found. Soon after a deputation of the Ghazni Chiefs and of the headmen of the tribes was persuaded by Mustaufi Habibulla to come to Cabul to lay their views before Mr. Griffin. Neither Muhammed Jan, however, nor Ghulam Haidar nor Mushk-i-Alam came with them. After the interview Mr. Griffin told them with designed brusqueness what Government intended to do, and dismissed them, exhorting the leaders to give General Stewart every assistance in their power. It is not easy to define what was the general result of the announcement of future policy. Those who felt or affected zeal for the cause of Yakub Khan were of course still further alienated by the assurance that in no case would he be restored to rule. The Hindus, and probably the trading classes generally, as well as the Sirdars, whose friendship our liberal largess had secured, feeling that their services to us had made them objects of resentment to the more patriotic, or that they would be unable to hold their own against successful rivals once our power was withdrawn—perhaps even here and there a native really desirous of a strong and settled government, regretted that our occupation was not to be permanent. Some who clung to the idea of a united Afghanistan deplored the partition and predicted that no ruler of spirit would be content to be Nawab of Cabul when his predecessors had been Amirs of Afghanistan. Thus the Mustaufi—of whose services we have spoken—showed such unmistakable feelings of disappointment that it was necessary to deport him to India. The subsequent alarms and troubles were said to be due in a great degree to his intrigues. But probably the mere certainty that the soil was to be freed from the presence of the irritatingly successful infidel would have given peace to our last days in Northern Afghanistan, if we had had at hand a ruler whom we could recognise and endow

at least with the reversion of such good-will as we had gained. The people had at least discovered that we were too strong to be driven out: the villagers had shown themselves in some instances weary of the agitation and the rapacity of the fanatical gatherings: and they were at last satisfied of the moderation of our wishes. But by this time Abdurrahman's approach was a new element of disquiet. His cousin Sarwar Khan had preceded him to Balkh, to agitate in his interest, and was there—the story goes—treacherously murdered by Ghulam Haidar, who had been Governor of Afghan-Turkestan at the time of the Cabul massacre, and had taken no notice of the overtures made to him by our authorities at Cabul. Probably he hoped to establish an independent rule north of the Hindu Kush. If so, his design failed: for his soldiery rose and declared for Abdurrahman. That prince soon appeared in Turkestan, and was received with general enthusiasm. The province was, in fact, the scene of most of his successful labours before his final defeat by Shir Ali. Yet even in Turkestan his material power was but small. His troops were few, and to obtain funds he made such exactions from traders as threatened to put a stop to all commerce with Cabul. South of the Hindu Kush, the only province where he had anything like general support was Kohistan. There were the wildest rumours as to his plans. His messengers were said to be everywhere. Now he was marching to join Ayub Khan at Herat: now he was entering into relations with the Yakub faction at Ghazni: now he intended to make Balkh the seat of his authority and await events: now he was marching straight on Cabul with a great force and supernatural artillery. The excitement showed itself in great gatherings in Kohistan, and many outrages along the line of communication. Not far west of Jelalabad was a small post called Fort Battye, held by a few hundred of our soldiers. The tribesmen in the neighbourhood attacked this one night towards the end of March, and Lieutenant Angelo, the brave young officer in command, was killed. Elsewhere two officers were attacked while riding, and one killed. Later there was a successful raid on the Government cattle at Jelalabad and threatening gatherings of fanatics in the neighbourhood of that place under local Mollas, which it was necessary to send troops to disperse. In all cases the offending tribes were punished by fines and the destruction of the "towers" of their villages. But here we have anticipated the course of events, and must now return to Candahar.

The civil administration of that place had been left to Shir Ali—an Afghan Sirdar, cousin of the Amir of the same name—and, as far as possible, interference with his administration had been avoided. There had, too, been an almost entire absence of those punitive expeditions which the more turbulent behaviour of the tribes in Northern Afghanistan had rendered necessary. There had indeed been a succession of attacks by fanatics on individual soldiers and officers, but the people generally, if not enthusiastic,

seemed at least fairly content with a rule which gave them peace and exemption from the harassing exactions of Cabul rule, and with the presence of a large force which involved a demand for food and for every commodity which the place produced. The area of cultivation had enormously extended, prices had risen to an unprecedented height, and trade with India—especially in wool—had wonderfully developed. The dominant tribe was of course the Durani, to which the recent line of Amirs belonged, but as the rulers of Cabul had learned to depend on the local tribes, and preferred to surround themselves with advisers who were not Duranis, their kinsmen at Candahar, who felt only their exactions and got none of the benefits, had, it was believed, ceased to sympathise with them. It was, then, a matter of surprise to no one when in the beginning of April a letter from the Viceroy came to Shir Ali informing him that he was henceforth to be recognised as the independent ruler of the kingdom of Candahar. He was “informed” that the railway would be completed to connect his capital with India, that a British Resident would be appointed to his court, and that a British force would be kept at Candahar. To indicate further the good-will of the paramount power and to strengthen him for his duties of government, he was told that a battery of smooth-bore guns was on its way to him as a present. These were the smooth-bores of which so much was to be heard soon after in the melancholy details of the battle of Maiwand. A month later, the Wali—as the new ruler were styled—was finally invested with the insignia of his dignity.

As soon as the Bombay troops had arrived to garrison Candahar, the Bengal force, numbering in all about 6,000 fighting men, started in three divisions for Ghazni. At Khelat-i-Ghilzai the three columns united. As the troops advanced a gathering of the enemy was observed marching in a parallel line along the foot of the hills at a distance of eight miles. The country otherwise was deserted by its inhabitants, and it was alike difficult to procure supplies and information. On the morning of April 19, the force marched at daybreak from the halting ground at Mushaki—the length of the column in order of march being six miles. The road lay through a dreary country of sand and stone. As Ahmed Khel, a place about twenty-three miles south of Ghazni, was approached, the head of the column observed the enemy occupying a low ridge of hills about three miles in front and on the left flank. The two leading brigades were at once formed into position for attack, with the artillery in the road in the centre; orders were sent to the brigade which formed the rear-guard to send up part of its cavalry and infantry. The advance was ordered at eight o'clock, the artillery being moved to commanding positions. At nine o'clock, before the attack was developed, the crest of the ridge occupied by the enemy was seen swarming with men along a front of nearly two miles—a body on their right outflanking the left of the British line. “The guns,” says General Stewart, “had

scarcely opened fire when in an incredibly short space an enormous mass of men with standards formed on the hill-top, a great number of horsemen riding along the ridge apparently with the intention of sweeping to the rear of our line to attack the baggage. From the central mass rushed out successive waves of swordsmen on foot stretching out left and right and seeming to envelop the position. The horsemen turned the left, and pouring down the ravines struck the lancers before they could charge, forcing the leading squadron to the right and rear, while the Gurkhas on the left formed rallying squares." Through these, according to other accounts, the blended mass of friend and foe passed. Then as the Afghan horse swept on, our infantry opened a withering fire, and the lancers recovering pushed back the Afghans through the squares. Meanwhile in front the onslaught of swordsmen was so rapid and was pushed with such desperation, that during the few minutes which followed it became necessary to place every man of the reserve in the firing line. The enemy, however, pressed to within a few yards of the batteries, which having gallantly held their own were at length withdrawn a distance of 200 yards, the whole of the case shot being expended. "At this time," continues General Stewart, "the infantry on the right was forced back, and a fresh position taken up. Meanwhile the troops from the rear-guard had come up: the key of the position had been successfully held: the enemy's cavalry were forced back by some well-directed shells: and our own cavalry had been handled with much judgment and vigour in the open country on the right of our line. The attack having failed, at once collapsed." At ten General Stewart ordered his troops to cease firing. The enemy were flying broadcast over the country, but the necessity of protecting the baggage train in the rear prevented the cavalry from making effectual pursuit.

The total strength of the enemy was estimated at 1,000 horsemen and 15,000 foot. But the real fighting seems to have been done by the horsemen and the 3,000 or 4,000 fanatics who rushed on sword in hand, not waiting themselves to fire, and reckless of the withering fire which met them. A thousand of their dead were left on the field, and at least 2,000 more must have fallen. The British loss compared to this was trifling—17 killed and 124 wounded. Two hours were spent in burying the dead; that evening Nani, 17 miles farther on, was reached. Next day General Stewart's advanced cavalry entered Ghazni without opposition.

General Stewart was not the less commended because the future of the day at one time seemed doubtful. Certain it is that never before had Afghans shown such determined valour. But we have thus told in detail of the battle of Ahmed Khel chiefly because it supplies in anticipation the best explanation of the disaster of Maiwand. Had General Stewart occupied a less favourable or his foes a more favourable position: had the daring of the fanatical swordsmen been seconded by such a force of cavalry as Ayub Khan had at Maiwand: had the disparity of numbers been greater:

had General Stewart's men been of less enduring stuff: or, above all, had the fanatics of Ahmed Khel, instead of having no guns against twenty British guns, had such a preponderance of artillery as Ayub had in his attack on General Burrows, then it is possible that the battle of April 19—had General Stewart decided to fight—might have ended as disastrously as that of July 27.

On the 22nd General Stewart had again to move out from Ghazni to disperse the remnants of the vanquished force, which had collected at a village some miles off. They were routed with little difficulty and, after a few days' stay, General Stewart started for Cabul. No garrison was left behind, but the place was made over to one of the Sirdars who had professed friendship. This new Governor, however, did not succeed in maintaining his authority very long among the turbulent tribesmen of the neighbourhood, and Ghazni was soon again to be the head-quarters of the representatives of the Yakub or malcontent faction. The resistance organised at Ahmed Khel was understood to be the work of the old priest Mushk-i-Alam.

A force had been sent from Cabul to meet General Stewart, and to create a diversion in favour of this force a body of troops had also been sent to Charasiab, at the head of the Logar Valley. Both detachments were attacked, and the small body of troops at Charasiab had to defend themselves against tremendous odds till relief hurriedly sent from Cabul arrived.

General Stewart on his arrival took over command, as senior officer, from General Roberts, but before he did so a change had occurred in England which was to have important effects on Afghan policy. Lord Hartington had succeeded Lord Cranbrook at the India Office, and Lord Lytton had resigned the Viceroyalty. We have seen what the scheme of the Conservative Administration was. Candahar was to become practically a protected State of the British Indian system. It was to be connected with India by rail, and for a time, at any rate, it was to have an English garrison. Whether any further modifications of the scientific frontier secured by the Treaty of Gandamak would have been decided on, we have no means of judging. As we shall see, there had been an idea of making over Herat to the guardianship of Persia. Having, by the Candahar arrangement, provided a safe base of action in the heart of Afghanistan, the Conservative Government, their friends say, was willing to allow Cabul and Northern Afghanistan to be the subject of an experiment, the progress of which they could watch and control. It is known, in fact, that communications were opened with Abdurrahman while Lord Lytton was still Viceroy. But on what terms Lord Lytton would ultimately have accepted him as Amir is not known.

Lord Ripon authorised the continuation of the negotiations which his predecessor had initiated. It is not easy to frame from the various statements made by Lord Hartington—statements necessarily vague in themselves and varying, of course, as events

developed themselves—what the precise policy of the new Government was. This, however, is clear, that whereas Lord Lytton made the establishment of a strong and friendly native Government a condition of our withdrawal, Lord Ripon allowed it to be known that our main object was to get out of Northern Afghanistan, and that the creation of a settled Government to succeed the interregnum of our presence was a subordinate matter, eminently desirable, worth trouble and sacrifice, but not an indispensable condition. Many authorities indeed who were opposed to the general policy of “retreat,” with which Lord Ripon was credited, were quite willing to see the punishment of Cabul completed by its abandonment to anarchy. As to the question of retaining Candahar and the points secured to us by the Treaty of Gandamak—that is to say, the Khaibar Pass, the Kuram Valley, and towards Candahar, the Peshin Valley and Sibi—it was understood from Lord Hartington’s explanations that full discretion was allowed to Lord Ripon, who was to act on the best advice available, and do whatever our interests required, or honourable engagements compelled us to. But the tendency of opinion in the Cabinet was (Lord Hartington implied) against any steps which would involve the permanent retention of any considerable garrison beyond the frontier—a phrase by which he was understood to mean the frontier which existed before the war. By this time the discovery of the blunder in the estimate of the expenses of the war had made the Government peculiarly sensible of the financial drain which the prolonged occupation of Cabul involved. We have already spoken of the excitement which the missives of Abdurrahman and the rumour of his approach created. As he drew nearer this grew so serious that troops were sent out from Cabul to the border of Kohistan, to the Maidan, and the Logar Valley. In the latter of these the gatherings were so serious that, in spite of the rigid orders of Government to avoid any further hostile action, it was necessary to disperse them by force, and a brilliant cavalry action at Padkhao in July closed the war, as far as Northern Afghanistan was concerned.

While Abdurrahman was still in Turkestan a mission had been sent to sound him. Truly, or untruly, it was reported that he was in constant communication with his friends—his Russian friends, it was assumed—at Tashkent. He was, at any rate, found to be a pleasant, active man, who did his own business and spoke in no unfriendly tone of the English. He was, however, compelled to take constant precautions against assassination, and seemed to be, as indeed he was to the last, very much in the power of the troops who supported him. The communication made to him seems simply to have been that if he came to Cabul as a friend matters might be so arranged that he would take over the power we resigned. Of course, some assurance on his part of a willingness to further our immediate views and of a generally friendly disposition was also required. At Cabul there

was much doubt as to his intentions. It was clear enough that we could help him by giving him peaceable occupation; but on the other hand, the mere circumstance that he would appear as our nominee would damage him in the eyes of the patriotic party. Abdurrahman himself, in his letters, professed friendly feeling towards us; but expressed a wish to come to Kohistan and wait there a little, to confer with his friends and discover what support he could count on, before appearing at Cabul. He had been informed that Candahar and the districts occupied under the Gandamak Treaty were expressly excepted from any settlement that might be arrived at. Yet in the letters which he sent to the tribespeople he said nothing of his relations with the British, affected to come as the champion of Afghan independence, and spoke of coming to claim—not Northern Afghanistan—but the whole realm of his grandfather, Dost Muhammed. So ambiguous indeed was his attitude that at one time it had almost been decided to break off negotiations with him. But having, it would seem, discovered that he had but little Afghan support to alienate, he became more explicit in his assurances, and explained that the pretensions in his letters were mere diplomatic phrases designed to conciliate the patriotic party. The result was that on July 22, at a durbar held at Cabul, attended chiefly by the townspeople and the Sirdars peculiarly devoted to our interests, Mr. Griffin announced that we recognised Abdurrahman as Amir of Northern Afghanistan. In the city that day there were some perfunctory rejoicings, but nothing like a display of popular enthusiasm. Before this, however, all persons who sent petitions on matters of State had been referred to Abdurrahman. Even Muhammed Jan, who professed his willingness to come in, was admonished to go to see Abdurrahman, who was still in Kohistan. Mushk-i-Alam joined him there, and Asmatulla Khan, the Ghilzai chief of Lughman, of whose persistent hostility to us we have spoken. A few days after Mr. Griffin went to see the new Amir at Zimma, twenty miles from Cabul, to settle details. Abdurrahman frankly said that he did not desire our ostensible support, that the presence of our troops would only weaken him. He had, indeed, even then the greatest difficulty in restraining the anti-English feeling of his followers. No formal engagement was entered into, the conclusion of a treaty being expressly said to be dependent on the evidence he would still have to show of the success of his rule and his good faith to us. But he was assured that if he conformed to our advice we would, if necessary, defend him against unprovoked aggression from without. With his internal administration there would be no interference, and he would not be asked to receive an English Resident. As a matter of fact, not even a native Agent has been left at Cabul. The gist of the understanding seemed to be that Abdurrahman should use all his influence to save our retiring forces from difficulty or attack. In return, we put him in possession of all the fortifications constructed at Cabul,

Jelalabad, and elsewhere. We gave him large sums of money to free him from temporary embarrassments, and we left to him the captured Afghan guns and stores of ammunition. Whether all this was arranged at Zimma, or subsequently, we cannot say; for events which occurred elsewhere rendered it doubtful for a time whether the evacuation of Cabul would not be deferred.

During the period of disorder which followed the flight of Amir Shir Ali to Balkh and his death there, his son, Ayub Khan, appeared from long exile in Persia at Herat, and was admitted by the Afghan Governor. Of that place he continued to be virtual master during Yakub's brief reign; but he always expressed his displeasure at his brother's unpatriotic relations with the British. After the Cabul massacre and the British occupation of Cabul, he did not respond to the friendly overtures made to him by the British authorities. Reports reached Candahar and Cabul of constant disorders at Herat; and even of open battle between the two sections of the troops—the local Herati soldiers and a body of Cabuli troops. Ayub himself was regarded as a mere puppet in the hands of the latter, and was believed to be a man of feeble character and weak health. As early as February there were rumours that he meditated an advance on Ghazni, and as time passed the reports which reached Candahar of his preparations were frequent and consistent. But it was said that Candahar was the point against which he was to advance. Though much of course was obscure, yet one detailed account was telegraphed from Candahar to Cabul giving particulars as to the strength of Ayub's force, the number of his guns, and even the name of his lieutenant, which the event proved to be correct. But there had been so many alarms of Ayub's advance that at last the danger was hardly seriously considered at Candahar. The truth seems to be that the start was delayed owing to the quarrels of the troops, but on June 9 Ayub's force did at last leave Herat, and on the 26th the Viceroy received an official warning of the fact from our Ambassador at Teheran.

At this time it was believed that the route from Herat to Fara was singularly difficult. All the reports led our officers to believe that the discipline of Ayub's soldiers was bad, and the arrangements for commissariat, &c., defective, and that the tribesmen along the route would prove hostile. Nevertheless before the end of June the Herat army had reached Fara. Hearing this, on July 1 the Government of India sanctioned the proposal of General Primrose (who commanded at Candahar) to send a brigade to Girishk on the Helmand to assist the Wali's troops. The idea was that Ayub's demonstration was directed rather against the Wali than against us. The Government of India therefore thought proper to leave the defence of the country beyond the Helmund to the Wali; but considering that the passage of that river would endanger our position at Candahar, directed that it should be prevented. But General Burrows was (it was clearly understood)

not to cross that river. Even before this the Wali had had some local troubles in the Zamindawar province to deal with. He succeeded, however, in asserting his authority without our help. The garrison at Candahar was at this time admittedly weak even for local needs, and Government, no doubt recognising this fact, directed on July 1 that troops from the reserve division in India should be sent up to reinforce it. Unfortunately floods in the country between Sakkar and the mountains interfered with the working of the frontier railway, and a very small portion of the reinforcements succeeded in reaching Candahar before the rising which followed the Maiwand disaster interrupted communication altogether. The approach of Ayub had meanwhile caused the greatest anxiety throughout the Candahar province. The tribesmen were said to be flocking in great numbers to his standard, and some notables long believed to be sincerely loyal, disappeared mysteriously from Candahar—to join the invader, as it was soon to appear. Little confidence was felt in the fidelity of the Wali's soldiers, who had never indeed been held in much respect by our officers. On July 13, he was encamped on the further bank of the Helmund. General Burrows' brigade was encamped opposite Girishk on the eastern bank, some miles lower down. The Wali came in a state of great agitation to say a regiment which he had originally brought with him from Cabul was unfaithful, and was trying to tamper with the other local troops. It was decided to bring back the Wali's army to the neighbourhood of the British camp and there disarm the suspected Cabuli regiment. But next morning, when in obedience to orders, the tents were being struck, all except the cavalry rose in mutiny and marched off to join Ayub, who at this time was only three marches distant. After some regrettable hesitation the British troops crossed the river in pursuit, and after a slight engagement, "dispersed" the mutineers. But the straggling bands were soon on their way to the hostile camps. General Burrows had then to consider what was to be done. The mutineers had carried off from Girishk much of the stores collected there. It was impossible to learn anything of Ayub's movements or the condition of his force: for the spies employed by the Political Department were wholly untrustworthy. Finally General Burrows decided to retire to Khushk-i-Nakhud, a position forty-five miles from Candahar, thus putting a desert tract of thirty miles between himself and the Helmund. Khushk-i-Nakhud, further, was at the narrowest part of the tract, between the mountain barrier on the north and the desert through which Candahar was approached. The Government was of course anxious as to his plans, and frequent telegrams were exchanged with Candahar; but while leaving action to his discretion, they impressed on him through the Commander-in-Chief the extreme importance of preventing Ayub from breaking away towards Ghazni. For even then, no one—probably not even Ayub himself—knew what his goal was. The Afghan army crossed the river Helmund at Haiderabad—north of Girishk—but the first

intimation General Burrows had of the fact was the appearance of the enemy's cavalry. The circuit of our cavalry patrols was daily narrowed, and though some villagers gave wonderful accounts of Ayub's strength, the political officer—Major St. John—declined to believe that he was really formidable. Our camp was shifted more than once, and frequent councils were held, revealing much difference of opinion. Of the fatal July 27 it would be impossible to write an account which some will not, on what may seem reasonable grounds, impeach as unfair. The official dispatches cannot be taken as a basis, for the Government, and military opinion generally, has pronounced them to be meagre, and even evasive. Of the account which we propose to give it can only be said that it is based on a critical comparison of the dispatches, the accounts given by the survivors, and on the results of the visit subsequently paid to the battle-field. The indications there were conclusive on some, at least, of the disputed points. Some twelve miles north of Khushk-i-Nakhud is a village and pass over the hills called Maiwand. By this a force could, avoiding Khushk-i-Nakhud, march on to Candahar. On the evening of the 26th spies reported that a small body of the enemy were making for the pass. Next morning General Burrows decided to march out to "turn out the few hundred Ghazis" who occupied it. It was impossible to leave the baggage behind, for there were no men to guard it, and so, cumbered by a huge train, the force marched out. It consisted of 141 artillerymen, 497 European infantry, 544 native cavalry, and 1,273 native infantry—in all nearly 2,500—taken from the following regiments: European, 66th Foot and E.-B. Royal Horse Artillery; Natives, 3rd Bombay Light Cavalry, 3rd Sind Horse, Bombay Grenadiers, and Jacob's Rifles, besides Sappers and Miners. There were six 9-pounder guns and the Wali's six smooth-bores, which were manned by forty-two men of the 66th. This little force, weakened as it was by sickness and the necessity of guarding the cumbrous baggage, was to engage an Afghan force consisting, according to the lowest estimate, of 12,000, and according to the general estimate, of at least 20,000 men (5,000 of whom were cavalry). At half-past six they started. At about ten, when they had marched eight miles, a body of cavalry were seen about a mile and a half away on the left front. An officer sent forward to reconnoitre reported that they were retiring. Between them and the British force was a broad torrent-bed which Lieutenant Maclaine crossed with two guns, eager to pursue the retreating cavalry. An order was sent to him to come back, but for some reason—never to be disclosed—he did not do so, and two other guns and some cavalry were sent to his support. Then the whole line of the enemy's troops was seen through the mist marching in a long line along the stony moor which stretched for miles in front to the foot of the hills. They had in truth been marching for Maiwand, which lay on our right and, according to the statement of one of Ayub's officers who

was subsequently made prisoner, would have been cut off from their water, and otherwise gravely embarrassed, had General Burrows pushed on and occupied the pass, or even taken up any of the strong positions offered by the long line of buildings and enclosures which extended for three miles to Maiwand. Finding, to their relief, that the English commenced the attack, they had only to face to the right to be in battle order. The guns having thus casually engaged the enemy, General Burrows seems to have allowed the circumstance to determine the choice of a battle-field. There had been, it must be remembered, no opportunity of previously reconnoitring the ground. The General left the line of enclosures, and took his infantry across the torrent-bed to the open exposed place beyond to support the guns. For half an hour Ayub's artillery made no reply to ours: but meanwhile their line was closing round. In our front and on our right was the deep torrent-bed (of the full extent of which no one knew till the field was revisited), which allowed them to manœuvre, unseen by our men and almost unhurt by our fire. The order of line was as follows, beginning from the right—66th, five companies of Jacob's Rifles, the Horse Artillery in action, the Sappers, the Bombay Grenadiers, two more of the Wali's smooth-bores manned by men of the 66th. In the rear were, at first, the cavalry, the rest of the smooth-bores, and two companies of Jacob's Rifles. In about half an hour the enemy began to reply from their right, the fire gradually extending along their front. The infantry were ordered to lie down, the 66th and Jacob's Rifles getting fairly good cover, and the two companies of Jacob's Rifles were brought from the reserve and put on the extreme left. The unsteadiness of these, General Burrows says, caused him uneasiness early in the action. Simultaneously with the artillery fire, the enemy developed turning movements—the fanatical tribesmen (or to use the native name that has now become familiar)—the Ghazis appearing in the villages on our right rear. Our cavalry on the left kept the enemy's horse in check, and the infantry kept up a steady fusilade. The cavalry also kept the Ghazis on the right at bay. Thus for three hours continued the fight, our infantry fire keeping the front clear, but the cavalry and the Grenadiers suffering terribly from the enemy's artillery, for, pushing their guns to the edges of the torrent-bed, they had soon enfiladed our line. It is worth noting that all the real fighting was done by the Ghazis and the cavalry, Ayub's regular infantry, which were on our left front, made one only attempt to advance, but retired before successive volleys. Not so the Ghazis. About two they pressed so hard on the right flank that a party of the Sind Horse was ordered to charge. Here followed one of the disputed incidents of the day. According to the version we adopt, the men, after a little hesitation, were moving off at a gallop when General Nuttall, who commanded the cavalry, cried "Halt!" Retiring in some disorder they saw the artillery going out of action. Before this the two companies of

Jacob's Rifles on the left, having lost all their officers save one, a native, had followed the smooth-bores to the rear. The six Horse Artillery guns, though suffering severely from the concentrated fire of the enemy, had held their own, the gunners to the last, be it said, in General Burrows' words, "serving their guns as coolly as if they were on parade." Whether the withdrawal of the guns commenced after the collapse of the infantry on the left, or whether the withdrawal demoralised these and led to their collapse, is a disputed point. Disputed, too, is the question why two of the guns were left behind—General Burrows apparently throwing blame on Lieutenant Maclaime, who waited to have another "round." But certain it is that at length the Grenadiers and Jacob's Rifles yielded to the pressure of the Ghazis, who by this time swarmed on the rear and the flank. The British line "curled up like a wave," the natives falling back in confusion on the 66th. These, standing up in surprise, found themselves pressed upon by mixed masses of Ghazis and their own native comrades. General Nuttall implored such of his cavalry as he could collect to charge along the rear and thus give the infantry time to re-form. They charged, indeed, but did not press the charge home. Then they left the field and re-formed again beyond the torrent-bed on the right. Hither slowly retreated the infantry—the 66th in fairly good order, the native troops following, cowed and completely disorganised. Beyond the channel in the enclosures or gardens, a stand was made by men of the 66th, splendidly led by their officers. One party stood back and kept the Ghazis at bay till they nearly all had fallen man by man. The few survivors rushing out perished fighting hand to hand. Another party, retiring a little, held their own for a quarter of an hour, firing from behind a low mud wall. But at last General Burrows gave the order for retreat; indeed, before this the rest of the force was streaming away towards Candahar. The artillery, assisted by the cavalry, checked the foremost of the enemy, but it was found impossible to direct the bulk of the fugitives to the only road along which water was procurable. For the rest of that day, all through the night, till evening of the following day, the flight continued. The Ghazis had suffered too much themselves, and were too weary with the efforts of the day, to pursue very far; but bands of the cavalry hung for some miles in the rear, and as day broke the villagers along the road poured out in ever-increasing numbers to harass and cut down the fugitives. There is no need to describe in detail the horrors of the flight. At 2 A.M. news of the disaster had been brought to General Primrose by some of the cavalry. While making himself other preparations, he sent out General Brooke with a small party of troops towards the Argandab to bring in the fugitives. The General had, in fact, to fight his way out, and, but for his excellent dispositions, probably few of the fugitive bands could have forced their way through the gatherings of armed villagers which blocked the way to Candahar. As it was, nearly all the survivors and the guns were

safe within the city by the afternoon of the 28th. The news of the British defeat spread like wildfire through the inflammable population round Candahar, and between that place and Quetta. Suffice it here to say that the telegraph wire was cut before details of the rout were known at Candahar. One brief message framed by a young officer in the staff told the Viceroy and the world that Burrows' brigade had been "annihilated." After that there was precarious communication with Chaman, the nearest post on the line to Quetta, by such messengers as succeeded in pushing their way through. But all the first accounts exaggerated both the extent of our loss and the disgrace of the disaster. Not till Candahar was relieved and the battle-field visited was justice done to our soldiers. There are many who still blame the native troops; but it is generally admitted that the 66th behaved not only with steadiness but with gallantry. Nor can any disgrace be said to attach itself to the Bombay Grenadiers; our officers of all ranks and services (with one or two exceptions, which as we write are the subject of official enquiry) are admitted to have shown the highest gallantry and devotion. The despatches which record the "individual acts of bravery" are indeed the only satisfactory documents connected with the affair. General Burrows, whatever may be thought of his strategy, fought with such boyish courage that "if he had been a subaltern instead of a commander he would have won a Victoria Cross twenty times." And in the retreat his coolness and thoughtfulness were no less conspicuous. But the honours of the day were for the artillery. How they behaved in the field we have told. In the retreat they protected our rear; even to the walls of Candahar military formation was kept up, and the limbers served as ambulances for the wounded. But altogether, in the battle and the retreat, nearly half the force perished. Two of the Horse Artillery guns were lost in the field, and five of the smooth-bores abandoned in the retreat.

While the fugitives were still coming in General Primrose, after a hasty consultation, came to the conclusion that in the existing temper of the people, and after the total collapse of the Wali's authority, it would be injudicious to hold the cantonments. He therefore withdrew—precipitately, the Government of India considered—to the city, whence he subsequently expelled all the Durani inhabitants—a class whose known sympathy with Ayub Khan rendered their presence within the walls dangerous. Arrangements, which Government and military observers have since pronounced to be singularly judicious and effective, were made for strengthening the place against a siege. But for days there was no indication of Ayub's approach. The truth is that if the beaten side had suffered the victors had suffered still more severely. The very completeness of their success demoralised them. What Ayub's original plan was, or whether he had any, is not very clear. The idea of a march on Candahar was first started, it is said, as a means of appeasing the feuds between the Herati and the Cabuli

troops. The Cabulis were anxious to get to their homes; the Heratis were unwilling to go too far from theirs; and the small section of Candahari troops were, of course, anxious for a triumphant return to their own place. Ayub seems to have thought at one time simply of hanging on the skirts of the new kingdom of Candahar; preventing our nominee from consolidating his authority, and finally, on our departure, stepping in to take Candahar. But when General Burrows encountered him he was, according to the account of some of his officers who were made prisoners, attempting to evade him, with a view to surprising Candahar. If he did not mean seriously to do this, he probably intended to make for Ghazni, and gather round him there all the elements hostile to us and his rival Abdurrahman. But after the battle he had to form fresh plans. There were disputes among his soldiery. The Cabuli troops were suspected—reasonably as it turned out—of being unwilling to act against Abdurrahman, in whose power their families were. The fanatics were for marching on Candahar; the Heratis for returning; the more experienced military advisers were conscious of the difficulties of the siege and the dangers of delay. Disputes ran so high that there was open fighting in the camp. The result, however, was an advance on Candahar, and the despatch of horsemen and artillery to watch the roads which led from Candahar to Quetta, to help the local risings, and of emissaries, who, as we shall see, were only too successful in stirring up the tribes along the route to Quetta. The Afghan artillery at Maiwand was splendidly served, and the tactics were of the best European type. Hence arose the rumour, for some time regarded as at least probable, that Ayub had Russian officers. There is, however, not the slightest evidence that this was so. Such art as was shown was probably due to the training the Afghans received in Shir Ali's time. Even now it is not certain who Ayub's generals were; but Afzul Khan, a former Governor of Candahar, was believed to be one, and Khushdil Khan, the Luinaib, or Governor of Turkestan (himself a man of influence in the Candahar country), was known to be another.

On August 8 the first shots were fired by the enemy from the hills on the west of Candahar. Their practice was said to be excellent; but after the siege it was discovered that the stories of elaborate works on scientific principles were due to the imagination of our spies. The regular troops, in fact, hardly pressed the siege at all—the investment being left almost wholly to the tribesmen, who were eager to hurry on the assault. The only exciting incident of the siege was a sortie on August 16 against some villages on the eastern side of the city. The object, according to General Primrose, was to compel the enemy to show their hand, and to destroy some batteries in the village, which had annoyed and seemed to threaten the garrison. The movement, in the opinion of the Government, was not a judicious one. The troops concerned showed admirable spirit, and for a time drove the enemy from the village; but the

tribesmen, hurrying from all quarters, re-occupied it, and from loopholed buildings poured a destructive fire on our men. The loss in the retreat was very serious, and, but for the cavalry, would have been greater. Nevertheless, soon after, the enemy practically raised the siege—in consequence, it would seem, of news of the approach of General Roberts' relieving force. They took up positions first at Sanjari, a place near the Argandab, on the road to Girishk; but ultimately established themselves in the position at Mazra, from which General Roberts was to dislodge them.

At the first news of the disaster at Maiwand, the troops on the road between Candahar and Chaman (the post at the foot of the Khojak Pass, by which the route lies from the Peshin Valley towards Candahar) had hastily withdrawn, not without fighting, to Chaman. Even before the Maiwand disaster the fierce Kakar Pathans had committed serious outrages. A surveying officer had been murdered in their country; and once a large gathering had descended suddenly on one of the British posts and overpowered the little garrison which held it. After the disaster the unruly Kakar population rose at once. Some isolated posts were attacked; and farther east the Marris, a tribe with whom, long before Afghan complications arose, we had continued relations, succeeded in overpowering one of the parties retiring from the works on the railway, and captured the treasure. General Phayre, who was in command at Quetta, made every effort to organise a force for the relief of Candahar, and reinforcements were sent, of course, from India. But the incessant demand for transport and supplies had all but drained the country, and though at the close of August General Phayre was able at last to leave Chaman with a well-equipped column, he received, while still on the road, the news that General Roberts had inflicted a decisive defeat on Ayub Khan.

To Cabul we must now return. Had our splendid force been able to march out at the appointed time with due pageant, leaving the city we had spared to the prince we had been pleased to recognise, no Afghan could have mistaken our moderation for fear, and the programme of Lord Lytton would have been carried out. Fortunately from one point of view—unfortunately from another—our whole force was still at Sherpur, when the exaggerated tidings of the disaster at Maiwand arrived. There was little hesitation in our camp. The Home Government had asked whether General Roberts could not march to relieve Candahar. General Roberts himself was anxious to go. General Stewart was ready to spare him. But what was to be done with the troops which did not march to Candahar? At first official announcements led the public to believe that they would withdraw (in accordance with the original design) to healthy camping grounds, sufficiently near Cabul to enable us to observe events at that city, and, if necessary, to interfere. The frightful mortality in the previous year on the march through the valley of Jelalabad and the Khaibar, as well as the specific announcements made by Government, led everyone to

believe that the final withdrawal would be deferred till the cold weather had set in. But General Stewart was of opinion that if the troops were to withdraw at all, it was better to withdraw them before the tidings of our defeat, and possibly of further disaster at Candahar, had thoroughly roused the tribesmen against us. The camping grounds, too, were so tainted that it was advisable even on sanitary grounds to hurry the troops along as quickly as possible. Thus two days after General Roberts started with the flower of the force for Candahar, General Stewart started for India with the less efficient troops, with the sick, with swarms of camp-followers, with all the Afghans who thought it unsafe to remain after we had left, with the Hindu traders, and the followers of all these. And while all the best animals had been made over to General Roberts, General Stewart had what remained and the weedy remnants of the transport train. After the march began, General Stewart with a small party remained behind to interchange a few compliments with the new Amir, who rode in from his camp at some little distance at once to meet for the first time and to say farewell to his English friends. It was, too, his first visit after years of exile to the city which was to be the basis of his rule. The interview was of the usual ceremonial kind: some compliments on both sides; and a few words of thanks—regarded as cordial by those who heard them—from the Amir. Then the General and his party cantered away after the receding troops. Even before this there had been some fear of disturbances in the city between Abdurrahman's followers and our troops, and that day there were turbulent demonstrations against persons regarded as not quite "true Afghans." Our officers were quite prepared to hear that the city had "risen" against our legatee as soon as our backs were turned. He himself had declared, however, that our presence would weaken rather than strengthen him. Such influence as he had was undoubtedly exercised in good faith on our behalf. The tribesmen may have been satisfied to see us leave, or they may not have had time to make preparations for an attack. However that may be, the fact is that not a shot was fired against us as we withdrew. At some places the local tribesmen fought over the stores we left behind. But at Jelalabad and other important places, provisions and fortifications were handed over personally to the representative of the Amir. The natives we had appointed to local control were, in almost every instance, supplanted by men who had previously held aloof from us—a prudent measure no doubt, if the need of conciliating the pure Afghan sentiment be regarded. Our troops pushed on rapidly in three divisions to the old Indian frontier; and though for some months some were left to garrison the Khaibar Pass, the rest were soon back in the long wished-for cantonments of India. There was hardly any of the illness and suffering anticipated, possibly because our long occupation of the route had rendered it possible to have better shelter at the halting places.

It is hardly necessary to say that the measures taken provoked

heated discussion in India and England. It was possible with good show of reason to allege, on the one hand, that every Afghan must have known that we were retreating through fear of attack or complications; on the other to say that our retirement at the time we had long before determined was in itself an evidence of our consciousness of strength, and destroyed any impressions unfavourable to English prestige which the news of the disaster in the South might have created. If General Roberts marched to Candahar, that was because it suited our arrangements to withdraw a portion of our troops by Candahar instead of by the Khaibar. On the other hand it was urged, with the earnestness of real concern, that Cabul ought to be held as a base till General Roberts had reached his goal. But, it was replied, the troops left behind were too weak to help him—too weak, possibly, to defend themselves if disaster to Roberts raised the country against us. General Roberts' true base was Candahar, to which he was advancing. There he would have communication with the Quetta force, and find a well-provisioned fortress. He had undertaken a "march in air," and he and the country must accept the inevitable risk.

There was, at all events, no dispute that having gone to Cabul on a mission of vengeance we had left it enriched by our lavish expenditure in bribes and purchases, and fortified as it had never been fortified before. A dispensary, opened in the early days of our occupation, was re-opened after the brief interval when Muhammed Jan and his men held sway, and attracted thousands of the people. Even the women came to get the benefit of English surgical skill, while quinine, chlorodyne, and other "English" specifics were welcomed where the name of Englishman was hated. Mr. Lepel Griffin said in his address at the last durbar that he hoped the recollection Afghans would have of us would not be wholly unfriendly. It is indeed beyond dispute that the conduct of our soldiers was admirable, and that the people suffered more by the visits of friendly fanatics than by the occupation of alien troops. On one point, however, there was in the early part of the year some painful controversy. General Roberts was charged with having systematically executed men guilty of no other offence than that of having fought against us. It is only necessary here to say that an explanation was forwarded by General Roberts, from which it appeared that all the persons executed (less than a hundred in all) had been found guilty by a Military Court of one or other of the following offences: (1) Having been concerned in the attack on the Mission; (2) Being found in possession of property belonging to the Mission after the period prescribed in the Proclamation for surrendering it had expired; (3) Being found armed within five miles of Cabul, a Proclamation having been issued declaring that death was the penalty for being so armed; (4) Mutilating the wounded. The necessity of protecting the lives of our soldiers from fanatical attack was the justification of the penalty under heads 3 and 4.

There is, of course, reason to fear that the Court of Enquiry was often misled by concocted evidence; that is inevitable in such a place at such a time; but the percentage of acquittals was high. At any rate, after the publication of the explanation, the outcry about the executions ceased.

After General Roberts had left the Logar Valley none of the messages sent by him till he arrived at Khelat-i-Ghilzai reached the English authorities elsewhere. Meanwhile the public mind was disturbed by frequent rumours. Candahar, of course, was a source of anxiety, and the information obtained regarding it even through spies and messengers was scanty. It was feared, too, that the garrison at Khelat-i-Ghilzai (north-east of Candahar, on the road to Ghazni and Cabul) might not be able to hold out. It turned out, however, that it was never even threatened. But round Quetta there were many genuine symptoms of danger. There was a spirited attack on one of the outposts. The Khan of Khelat gave the most cordial assistance to General Phayre; but for a time the mutiny of a portion of the Khan's troops suggested that he was more likely to require support than to give it. Meanwhile the reinforcements from India had to toil in small detachments through the defiles of the Bolan at the hottest time of the year, and there were constant apprehensions of attack from the Marriis.

The story of the "great march" ought to be told with some detail. The force placed at General Roberts' disposal consisted, as we have said, of the picked men of picked regiments. There were three brigades of infantry, one of cavalry, and three batteries of mountain guns. Major-General Ross commanded the infantry; Brigadier-General Hugh Gough the cavalry; Colonel A. C. Johnson the artillery. The first brigade of infantry, commanded by Brigadier-General Macpherson, included: Europeans, the 92nd Highlanders; natives, 23rd Pioneers, 24th Punjab Native Infantry, and 2nd Gurkhas. The second Infantry Brigade, commanded by Brigadier-General Baker, included: Europeans, the 72nd Highlanders; natives, 2nd Sikh Infantry, 3rd Sikh Infantry, and 5th Gurkhas. The third Infantry Brigade, commanded by Brigadier-General MacGregor, included: Europeans, 2-60th Rifles; natives, 15th Sikhs, 25th Punjab Infantry, and 4th Gurkhas. The Cavalry was made up of: Europeans, the 9th Lancers; natives, 3rd Bengal Cavalry, 3rd Punjab Cavalry, and the Central India Horse. Altogether there were 2,562 Europeans, 7,157 Natives, 273 British officers. The strength in artillery was far below the usual proportion. It consisted of only eighteen mountain guns, six of them being screw guns of a new pattern. The object was, of course, to make the columns as mobile as possible, for it was thought that towards the close of the march it might be necessary to chase Ayub Khan "across country." Everything was done to lighten baggage. Tents made to hold six men were made to accommodate ten. Even the British soldiers were allowed only 34 lbs. of kit. Each officer was allowed the luxury of one mule.

Of strictly European stores, such as tea and rum, thirty days' store was taken; but of the ordinary rations for the native troops only five days' reserve was provided. The country on the route was to provide the rest. In spite of every effort to reduce numbers, there were over 8,000 camp-followers. On August 8 the force moved into camp, and the following morning the march commenced. The fertile Logar Valley was considered more likely to yield supplies than the usual route by Maidan, and the line through Logar was therefore chosen. Soon after leaving Cabul, the whole of the Afghan drivers belonging to the transport deserted, and the Hazara drivers deserted as soon as their own country was reached. This, of course, threw unwonted and wearying work on the troops, and tried the officers to the utmost. The season was singularly propitious for such a march, and a fair amount of green Indian corn was everywhere procurable. The first ninety-eight miles were traversed in seven days, and on the 15th the force reached Ghazni. Deputies from Abdurrahman accompanied the force—men influential with the tribes along the route, and Mushk-i-Alam, who had so long preached a jihad against us, having been received with great honour by the new Amir, had also sent messages to the tribesmen to help the army on its way. We may, perhaps, say here that there seems to be no foundation in fact for rumours which at the time caused much excitement, of the newspaper kind, in Europe—that Abdurrahman had an understanding with Ayub. There may have been communications between them at first; but after Abdurrahman accepted our offers their interests became opposed. At Ghazni, the Governor met General Roberts and presented him with the keys of the city. The English Commander placed his own guards and sentries in and round the town. Between Ghazni and Khelat-i-Ghilzai the troops marched over the scene of General Stewart's victory—strewn with the graves of Afghan "Shadids" (or martyrs). On the 20th the first news was received from the South, in the shape of a letter from Khelat-i-Ghilzai, saying that all was well there. Next day heliographic communication was established with the Commander at Khelat-i-Ghilzai, and General Roberts heard of the unsuccessful sortie from Candahar on the 16th. But he heard also good news of the "staying power" of the garrison. On the 23rd the column reached Khelat-i-Ghilzai, having marched from Ghazni—134 miles—in eight days. Here, the news from Candahar being again good, there was a halt of one day. Next day General Roberts, taking the garrison with him, started again. The fort was made over to the Toki Chief, who had been in possession of it when first the British arrived there in January, 1879. On the 26th news came from Candahar that on the 23rd Ayub Khan had completely abandoned the investment, and finally taken up a position north-west of the city, in the Argandab Valley, between the Baba Wali Pass and Mazra. On the 27th some of General Roberts' cavalry sent on in advance to Robat,

nineteen miles from Candahar, met there the Political Officer and the Assistant Quartermaster-General, who had ridden out from Candahar disguised. From the information they brought it was clear that Ayub intended to make a stand, and General Roberts, therefore, felt free to give his men a second day's halt at Robat. The rest of the way to Candahar was divided into two short marches; for by this time both men and animals were "much fagged by the continuous marching and the now daily increasing heat." At Robat, too, a letter was received from General Phayre, which showed that he could not arrive in time, a fact which seems to have caused General Roberts regret, more on General Phayre's account than his own. "I was well aware," he says, "of the strenuous exertions he had made, and the privations he and his troops had undergone." On the 31st the relieving force reached Candahar, the distance from Cabul—318 miles—having been traversed in twenty-three days, including the two halts. The vicissitudes of temperature were peculiarly trying to such lightly equipped troops. But all hardships were forgotten in the eagerness to save Candahar. The discipline of the troops was not less admirable than their spirit and endurance. Straggling soldiers and camp-followers were in several instances murdered by the Afghans who followed in the wake of the column, yet no act of retaliation was committed. Supplies were paid for and property everywhere respected.

When the investment began General Primrose had 4,533 effective soldiers, a battery of 40-pounders, a battery of field artillery, and four guns of horse artillery. Thus the garrison was a material addition to General Roberts' force, the wheeled guns being especially welcome.

Before General Roberts had reached Candahar he had received from Ayub Khan a letter, which may seem to English readers an impudent attempt to impose on English credulity, but which to persons acquainted with Persian forms of epistolary etiquette will seem by no means an extravagant mode of showing a willingness to come to terms. He professed to have been always friendly to the English; said, in effect, that he had marched from Herat only because he thought the Wali was advancing against that place; that he (Ayub) marched by Maiwand because he heard the English were at Khushk-i-Nakhud; he hoped the English might show him friendship, but they had attacked him. "What was preordained came to pass." Finally, he begs to be counselled as to what he ought to do. General Roberts, in reply, could only advise him to submit unconditionally, and to surrender his prisoners. For at this time Lieutenant Maclaine and some native soldiers captured after Maiwand were kept in Ayub's camp. General Primrose had, it was stated, in vain attempted to procure their release.

General Roberts' instructions were to find out and beat Ayub Khan. He lost no time in the performance of his task. In the line of hills which, running in an oblique direction on the north-

west of Candahar, divides the plain round that place from the Argandab Valley, is a gap almost due west of Candahar through which the road to the west runs. The terminal spur on the north of the gap is called the Pir Paimal. A little to the north of this gap a road from Candahar goes by the Baba Wali Kotal (crest of a pass) to the Argandab. North again of the Baba Wali Pass is another—the Morcha. When General Roberts arrived on the 31st he placed his troops on the slopes of the smaller hills west of the city, and nearer to it than the main range. A small column was sent under General Gough to make a reconnaissance of the enemy's position. It found the enemy strongly entrenched at the village of Pir Paimal. The fire of the enemy having been drawn, our troops retired within the pickets. As they fell back the enemy advanced in such strength that the whole of the troops were ordered under arms. The casualties, however, were slight. The General decided next day to threaten the enemy's left (the Baba Wali Kotal) and to attack in force the Pir Paimal. The infantry of the Cabul force was formed up in rear of the low hills we have mentioned, while the cavalry, with some artillery and infantry, were held in readiness in rear of the left to operate towards the Argandab and endanger Ayub's line of retreat towards Girishk and Khakrez. The Candahar garrison was utilised partly to hold the ground from which the attacking force advanced, partly to threaten the Baba Wali and Morcha passes in front, and to cover the city. The enemy seemed inclined to act on the offensive, the villages immediately in front of our attacking force and the Baba Wali Pass being held in strength, and a desultory fire being kept up. At 9.30 our artillery fire opened on the Baba Wali Pass. Soon after the 1st and 2nd brigades, covered by artillery fire, advanced on the villages between their front and the spur of Pir Paimal. The first brigade (on the right) carried the village of Mulla Sahibdad (situated on a hill) in the most dashing style. The enemy withdrew sullenly and leisurely, a good many remaining to receive a bayonet charge. Meanwhile the 2nd division had been threading its way through lanes and walled enclosures, encountering the most stubborn resistance, for the enemy had loopholed the high walls. Here our loss in officers and men was great. The leading battalions had frequently to fix bayonets to carry positions or to check determined rushes of the enemy. After severe fighting both brigades emerged at the point of the hill near Pir Paimal, and bringing their left shoulders forward pressed on and swept the enemy through the closely wooded gardens and orchards which cover the western slopes.¹ The village of Pir Paimal was ours soon after noon, our troops being thus brought in rear of the Baba Wali Pass. The 3rd brigade, which had been left in reserve, now pushed on to join the advanced brigades. The position to which the enemy had retired after the capture of Pir Paimal was an entrenched camp to the south of the

¹ In the account of the fighting we retain where possible the very words of General Roberts' dispatch.

Baba Wali Kotal, commanding an open piece of ground. This entrenchment they were prepared to hold with the determination they had hitherto shown. Reinforcements were being rapidly pushed up from their reserves, while the guns on the Baba Wali Pass were turned round to increase the artillery fire. A charge of the two brigades, however, drove the enemy from the entrenchments at the point of the bayonet. The rout was complete; but General Ross could not at first see enough to realise his victory. The brigades halted and replenished ammunition. Advancing about a mile farther, the troops found themselves in sight of the whole of Ayub's camp, standing deserted apparently as it had been left in the morning when the Afghans moved to the attack. With the camp Ayub lost all his artillery (thirty-two pieces), including the two guns he captured at Maiwand. Further pursuit with infantry being hopeless, the two brigades were halted on the far side of the village of Mazra, where they were soon joined by the 3rd brigade. Meanwhile the cavalry of the Candahar force was ordered to come through the Baba Wali Pass and pursue the enemy up the left bank of the Argandab, while the cavalry brigade under General Gough continued its operations during the day, crossing the Argandab and pushing beyond the line of the enemy's retreat towards Khakrez. No regular troops were encountered, but 350 Ghazis and irregulars were killed. With the exception of the 1st brigade, all the troops returned to Candahar before dark. Many a gallant officer had fallen whose name had become a household word in the history of the war. Lying outside a tent, close to Ayub's own, was found the lifeless body of Lieutenant MacLaine. From the story of his fellow-prisoners it seems that his guard had murdered him just before they fled from the camp. Our total loss was 40 killed and 228 wounded. The number of the enemy was estimated to be—regular infantry 4,000, cavalry 800, Ghazis 5,000, irregular cavalry 3,000. Their loss could not, of course, be accurately ascertained; but 600 bodies of dead were buried between Candahar and the village of Pir Paimal. The Cabuli regiments, it would appear, had marched away, and Ayub himself had fled early in the day. The former went in tolerable order to Cabul, where they offered their services to Abdurrahman. As to Ayub, he pushed through Khakrez and Zamindawar, attended by a compact body of horsemen, to Fara, and thence reached Herat, where, in spite of rumours of revolt, he was again received. Before the battle of Candahar he had been joined by Hashim Khan and Muhammed Hasan Khan, who had for some time been the recognised leaders of the "Ghazni," "patriotic," or "Yakub" party. Of Muhammed Hasan Khan we have already given some account. Hashim Khan was a Cabuli Sirdar, the most able and wealthy member of the house of Dost Muhammed. He had been on friendly and indeed on intimate terms with our officers, and was regarded as the most likely candidate for the Amirship. Abdurrahman was an old enemy of his, and when our relations with

that prince became definitely friendly Hashim Khan (like Mustaufi Habibulla) suddenly disappeared from Cabul, and was soon heard of as the organiser of movements among the Ghilzais and other tribes against us. While on his way to Herat Ayub left Hashim Khan as his governor at Fara, and Muhammed Hasan Khan as governor of Sabzawar. Up to the end of the year there were constant rumours at Candahar that Ayub was preparing for another invasion. Whatever his wishes were he had enough to do to cope with local troubles. He had little money, and could get little help from his friends in Persia, while the exactions to which he had recourse made him unpopular with the people in the neighbourhood of Herat. Some of the leaders of the local tribes for a time confederated against him, and these were joined by his father-in-law, who, long a prisoner at Cabul, had accompanied General Roberts to Candahar and gone thence to Herat. But Ayub managed to get his father-in-law into his power, and the movement against him collapsed. At the close of the year he was still engaged in collecting an army round the small nucleus of men and guns which remained after his defeat. His lieutenants meanwhile held the district on the western border, and had partisans amongst, and sent emissaries to, the tribes up to and even beyond the Helmund. In the Candahar province generally the feeling of the people was in favour of Ayub, who had scorned the British power and achieved at least one great triumph over it, rather than in favour of Abdurrahman, who had committed himself to an understanding with the two rival infidel Powers—Russia and England.

As to Abdurrahman it can only be said that he had not lost ground, if he had not gained any, when the year closed. Communication between Cabul and India was so precarious that a rumour of the new ruler's assassination remained for weeks neither contradicted nor confirmed. It turned out that there had been disturbances of a grave kind at Cabul; that Abdurrahman was absent at the time on an amour, and that hence the rumour of his death arose. The Ghilzais hardly acknowledged his authority; Muhammed Jan was at Cabul, neither cordially supporting nor opposing the Amir, but exercising an almost rival influence, an object at once of Abdurrahman's attentions and suspicions. The whole state of affairs at Cabul was understood to be provisional. Events would develop themselves only when it was known whether the British would retain or abandon Candahar. For that place there would, everyone knew, be a struggle between Ayub and Abdurrahman, and the chances were believed to be in favour of the ruler of Herat. At any rate, up to the close of the year the Cabul Amir's authority was not acknowledged south of Ghazni, and even in the districts round Cabul he had failed to collect the arrears of revenue. But he was known to have amassed funds by confiscations of the estates of various Sirdars who had either fled or been expelled.

The decision of the Government with regard to Candahar was not made definitely known within the year. The preponderance of opinion in India was in favour of retaining the place as a place of arms. The Russian operations towards Merv suggested that that Power would soon be on the borders of Afghanistan, while the weakness of the two rulers would certainly tempt the Russian officials in Turkestan to the old game of intrigue and interference, rightly or wrongly imputed to them. The success, too, of Ayub's march showed how easy it was to organise a force at Herat, and how easily accessible Candahar was from that place. While some enthusiastic advocates of retention urged that Candahar would pay its own expenses; others were content to plead that it was cheaper in the long run to retain it than to recover it. A railway to the place, fortifications, and the certainty of remaining there would make it a safe and even a pleasant position for an English garrison. If it were abandoned, we should have (so these advisers said) to advance on it again within five years and encounter far greater difficulties than those we had surmounted at such tremendous expense. The effect, too, of retreat in the face of difficulties, on the temper of the native Powers in India, and the tranquillising effect of taking a step which would make our position absolutely secure, as against Russian advance, or alarms of Russian enterprise in Afghanistan, were insisted on. General Roberts certainly, and it was said a majority of the Viceroy's Council, and even the Viceroy himself, were in favour of keeping a British force at Candahar. But, in November, the Home Government sent a despatch to the Government of India expressing "in the strongest and plainest terms" their objection to anything that would involve the permanent retention of a British force at Candahar. The reasons given for the decision may be thus stated in brief:—

1. The apprehension of danger to India from the Russian advance was unreasonable.
2. If it should ever be necessary to occupy Candahar (as a defensive measure) it would be easier to do it when the independence of Afghanistan was threatened (as the despatch assumed it necessarily would be) by a foreign invader.
3. There would be no finality in occupying Candahar. We should be drawn on towards Herat by the same arguments as drew us to Candahar.
4. An occupation of Candahar would be followed by constant difficulties with the Afghans.
5. It would interfere with the creation of a strong Afghanistan.
6. It would involve an expense to the Indian Exchequer which even the most certain advantages would hardly justify.
7. The evidence of indisposition on our part to annex would reassure the native princes of India and increase their loyal feeling. Elsewhere, we may add, it was urged that so great was the unwillingness of the natives to serve beyond the frontier that the war had put a dangerous strain on the loyalty of the Sepoys, and had seriously checked recruiting.

Government then directed Lord Ripon to withdraw from Candahar at the earliest suitable time. If within a limited period

a strong native Government could be established, this was an end worth striving for. Abdurrahman was the first choice of Government, but it was admitted he was probably too weak to take Candahar over. Lord Ripon was, therefore, directed to see what could be done to establish a government of the local Sirdars. As we have said, nothing was definitely known at Candahar of the intentions of Government; the uncertainty, of course, increasing our difficulties. But in spite of many alarms the peace of the province remained unbroken. Mr. Lyall, the Foreign Secretary to the Government of India, came to the city to make enquiries as to the feeling of the people, and soon after he left local Sirdars were sent out with a very small supporting force in each case to administer the outlying districts. Supplies were fairly abundant, except so far as the scarcity of carriage made it difficult to bring them in. Indeed, in no department had the campaign been so fruitful of warning as that of transport. The need of some permanent organisation in India capable of ready expansion was generally admitted.

Letters from General Roberts' force described the condition of the garrison they relieved in no complimentary terms. They were scared, it was said, and the most monstrous stories of Ghazni terrors were current. The beleaguered soldiers stoutly deny that this was so, and appeal to the daring shown in the unsuccessful sortie. But when General Roberts' brigades marched on to India, as they did when their mission was accomplished, there was a marked contrast between the new Bombay troops and the seasoned Bengal soldiers who had restored British prestige. To restore proper tone, fresh Bengal regiments were ordered up from India, the survivors of the old garrison were withdrawn, and at the close of the year the garrison was an efficient force of Bombay and Bengal troops. General Phayre had assumed command after General Roberts' departure, but he was superseded soon after by General Hume, an experienced soldier, but, as yet, untried in Afghan warfare. About a week after the battle of Candahar a brigade was sent out to visit the battle-field of Maiwand. It found that nearly all the dead had been decently buried by the villagers, and, since much has been said of Afghan cruelty, we may add here that the prisoners who were given up by the villagers had, in most instances, been kindly treated.

Of the honours which awaited General Roberts, and those who fought with him, we need not speak here. General Stewart, who had played a less imposing but not less heroic part, became Military Member of Council, and subsequently was named to succeed Sir F. Haines as Commander-in-Chief in India. One of the victorious brigades, General Macgregor's, on its march back to India, had some serious work to do. It visited the country of the Marris, who were compelled to pay a fine and submit to other penalties for their raids.

Before the end of the year our troops were finally withdrawn

from the Khaibar Pass and the Kuram Valley. An arrangement was made with the Pass Afridis by which they were, in return for a subsidy, to patrol the pass, keep it open, and provide escorts. The forts constructed in the pass (which during our occupation had been provided with excellent roads) were made over to the Afridis. Few persons in India felt much confidence that the arrangement would "work." As to the Kuram—to keep faith with the Turis, the local tribe, who had assisted us, and had been assured that they would never revert to the rule of Cabul—it was made over to them as an independent Power.

One result of the war likely to be permanent was the railway from Sakkar on the Indus to the foot of the Bolan Pass. It was constructed with unexampled rapidity, in order to relieve the pressure on the transport; but it was the intention of the Conservative Government to complete it ultimately to Candahar. Across the desert, of course, it was easy to lay on the level sands the light narrow line, but with the mountains the difficulties commenced. The route selected beyond Sibi was not the regular Bolan route, and indeed, up to the end of the year, there was much dispute and uncertainty as to the best line. Sir Richard Temple, Governor of Bombay, to which Government the construction of the railway was assigned, showed much energy in pushing on the work and visited the line in person.

The railway towards the Khaibar was meanwhile being constructed, but not by any means as rapidly as the southern line; but before the close of the year it was ready for traffic almost to Attock, on the Indus.

One other result of the war was the presence in India of a number of distinguished Afghan *émigrés* and *detenus*. Yakub Khan had a pleasant residence assigned to him at Mussourie, a hill station of the N. W. P. Daud Shah, his commander-in-chief, Mustaufi Habibulla, Wali Muhammed, and a number of less distinguished Sirdars who left Cabul with our force, had also some attention shown to them.

The expenses of the war formed, of course, the main feature in the Budget statement for 1880-81. The satisfactory assurances of Sir John Strachey on this score had been anticipated by a statement made in England on the eve of the elections. From the statement of the Indian Finance Minister it appeared that the completed accounts of 1878-79 showed a surplus of two millions; that the revenue for 1879-80 would be 67,500,000*l.*, showing a clear surplus of 119,000*l.*, while the revenue for 1880-81 was estimated at 66,500,000*l.*, giving a surplus of about half a million. Thus Sir John Strachey pointed out (in reply to the persistent pessimism of his critics) in each of the three years reviewed (1878-79, 1879-80, 1880-81) there had been, or would be, a surplus, and this after paying from revenue all the expenses of the wars and of the construction of the railways to the frontier. The total net expenditure on the war to the end of 1880-81 was estimated to be

5,750,000*l.*, and on the railways 3,000,000*l.* Military critics ventured to throw doubt on the accuracy of the war estimates. But Sir John Strachey, while admitting the conjectural character of the estimates, said they had been framed with care and erred rather on the side of caution. Financial experts again pointed out that though, no doubt, the indications of the soundness of the sources of revenue were satisfactory, yet the surpluses of which Sir John Strachey was so proud were far below the normal surplus of two millions yearly, which he and everyone else agreed was necessary to provide for the recurrence of famine years. It was urged too that much of the prosperity was attributable to an enormous and unexpected improvement in opium receipts; that to diminish expenditure, absolutely necessary public works (not of the productive class) had been starved, and that a large part of the increment was due to new and unpopular taxation. Still, allowing for all this, it was admitted that the returns showed such a surplus of ordinary income over ordinary expenditure as would be safe in normal years.

The "Prosperity Budget" did much, not only to abate the anxiety regarding the general prospects of Indian finance, but to remove one ground on which the Afghan policy of the Government had been attacked, namely, that it had reduced India to the verge of bankruptcy. It thus enabled the English Government to contend not only that India ought to pay the whole expenses of the war, but that it could. Sir John Strachey, in fact, indignantly protested against the idea that India should accept Imperial help towards the expenses of a war undertaken to maintain the security of her own frontier. But soon after the change of Ministry at home there were ominous rumours of a blunder in the war estimates. Much correspondence had to pass before the facts were made clear; but in October Lord Ripon's Government reported, as the final result of enquiry, that the military expenditure proper, to the close of the year, would be (taking the rupee at 1*s.* 8*d.*) 13,148,000*l.*, and the expenditure on frontier railways 4,917,000*l.* Thus (making certain allowances for receipts from railways and telegraphs) the estimated net cost of the war was 17,498,000*l.* Towards this Mr. Gladstone had already announced that the English taxpayer would be required to pay a "solid and substantial sum."

As to the cause of the blunder there is absolutely no difference of opinion. No attempt was made in the early months of the year, when the estimate was prepared, to ascertain the actual expenditure on account of the war. The Military Accountant-General prepared an estimate roughly based on the expenditure of 1878-79, and in the early months of 1879-80 the Military Member of Council being satisfied himself that this estimate was framed on a just principle, submitted it to the Financial Department, and Sir John Strachey adopted it, without further attempt at verification. The monthly returns of actual expenditure ought,

it may be said, to have shown that the outlay for the remaining months of 1879-80 was really in excess of the amounts thus estimated. And so they would had there been such returns, but the military accounts differ from the ordinary accounts in this, that no disbursement is shown till it has been duly audited. Thus, what pretends to be the statement of expenditure within a given period is really the statement of the expenditure audited within that period, and this may be very much less—and, in the case of the extraordinary outlay for the war, was much less than the amounts drawn by the disbursing officers from the Treasuries. The accounts of the disbursements from the Treasuries would have shown the actual outgoings, and indeed it was the discovery of what these were that led to the exposure of the blunder. After the discovery regular returns were procured without difficulty within a very brief period from the close of each month. But till the blunder was discovered it occurred to no responsible person to adopt this by no means recondite expedient. As Government was thus in ignorance of the current cost of the war, it was, of course, misled as to what the future expenditure would be. To this explanation we need only add that as the war continued the rates for labour, transport, and supplies naturally rose, and that while the estimate was framed on the assumption that the war would be brought to a close, as in the preceding year, in the spring, the war was, in fact, prolonged to the end of the year. "The failure in the estimates," said Lord Hartington in a despatch in November, "is in no way due to causes which might not have been known or foreseen, but to the fact that they rested on no solid foundation of actual experience or of reasonable opinion." He goes on to express "his surprise that the responsible members of the Government should have accepted the estimates thus placed before them," and that "the language publicly used was calculated to convey the idea that all that was possible had been done to ascertain their accuracy." As simple annalists we must add that this was the view almost universally taken by the press in India, and that the distinguished persons concerned offered no defence, beyond the explanation we have given. Lord Lytton had sent his resignation to Lord Beaconsfield to be presented to her Majesty if the verdict of the elections was favourable to the Liberals, who had (with hardly an exception) denounced his policy in bulk and in detail. Sir John Strachey and Sir Edwin Johnson (the Military Member of Council), in anticipation of the censure of Government, had resigned office. Yet Sir J. Strachey remained in India till he was relieved in December by Major Baring, and, during the illness of the Viceroy, he was, as President of the Council, head, for the time, of the Government of India. The discovery of the blunder led to much discussion of a familiar kind regarding the shortcomings of the Indian bureaucracy and the condition of Indian finance generally. Sir J. Strachey's views, however, as to the generally satisfactory character of recent finance, and the produc-

tive public works system in particular, were adopted by Lord Hartington. The success of the loans both in India and England showed that financiers had confidence in the solvency of the Treasury, and the appointment of Major Baring (who had done so much for Egyptian finance) as the new Finance Minister reassured those who lamented, justly or unjustly, over the absence of financial experience in the Government of India. The only features of Sir John Strachey's budget which require special notice are: (1) the removal of the export duties on indigo and lac, and (2) the exemption from license tax of all incomes under 500 rupees. The loss to the Treasury was 340,000*l.*, but relief was given to the large class on which the tax pressed most heavily.

The class which, for want of a better name, we must call the educated natives, especially those of the Presidency and other large towns, had been drawn into close sympathy with the English Liberal party by their aversion to the Vernacular Press Act, the Afghan war, and the financial measures which that war necessitated. At the time of the general election they sent a special representative to England, not without hopes that some English constituency might adopt him as a candidate. Crowded and enthusiastic meetings were held to congratulate the Liberals on their triumph, and, as a practical demonstration of regard, an Indian subscription defrayed the cost of Mr. Fawcett's election. The resignation of Lord Lytton, and subsequently of Sir John Strachey, were "hailed with delight." But the hope they cherished that all that had been done would be undone, and that the Liberal Administration would adopt their views generally, was soon disappointed. Lord Hartington told a deputation that something was to be said even for the Vernacular Press and Arms Act. Lord Ripon did nothing towards the repeal of those measures. Regarding education, he on several occasions expressed his wish to recur to the policy of the despatch of 1854—the charter of Indian education. The principle of this is the substitution of State aid to private effort, or of private effort purely, for one of State support to the higher schools and colleges; and the extension of popular and vernacular rather than of the higher English education. Now some of Lord Lytton's steps in this direction had provoked protests from the class which owed its advantages to the State maintenance of colleges. Further, neither Lord Ripon nor Lord Hartington showed the slightest disposition to reverse the policy tending to free trade, in which the much condemned removal of the import duty from the classes of imported cotton goods with reference to which it acted protectively was a step. It was indeed admitted that the retention of a strict limit of duty tended to force Manchester industry into the preparation of a new class of cottons which had nothing to recommend it but that it just escaped the duty.

The discussions on the so-called Bengal Land Bill showed indeed that some at least of the Indian Liberals had on some points little sympathy with the extreme assertions of popular right. By

the existing law tenants who have held for twelve years have a right of occupancy, and their rent can only be raised by a suit at law for such reasons as these: that they hold at a rate lower than tenants of the same class in the neighbourhood: that the productive capacities of the land or the value of produce have increased. Tenants who have held land for less than twelve years are tenants at will. For many years past there have been complaints of wholesale enhancements and oppression. In 1879 Government appointed a commission to inquire into the subject. The report was ready in 1880. It set forth that the competition for land, if unchecked by law or custom, would certainly reduce the whole agricultural population to a condition of misery and degradation. While vested rights should be tenderly dealt with, no mode of appropriation ought—the Commissioners assumed—to be permanently allowed which involved the wretchedness of the great majority of the community. The remedial proposals of the Commissioners were embodied in a draft Bill which was circulated by Government for the opinions of distinguished officials and others: but which was not, within the year, made the basis of any legislative proposal. The main changes proposed were that for the tenants with rights of occupancy these rights should be transferable by sale, gift, or inheritance: and that all increase in the value of the land or crop not arising from the exertions of the landlord or tenant, should be equally divided between the two. As to the tenants at will, the Commissioners proposed to give a quasi occupancy right to all tenants who had held land for three years—that is to say, to nearly all the cultivators of Bengal. If the landlord demands an enhanced rent which the tenant refuses to pay, the landlord, before ejecting him, must pay one shilling compensation for disturbance, calculated at a sum equal to one year's rent as demanded; two shillings compensation for improvements, including payment for buildings erected by the tenant, tanks, embankments, &c., reclamations and enclosures, and fruit trees planted. The mere proposal of these changes roused the landlords of Bengal and Bihar to action. At nearly all the district centres the great estate-holders met to deny that the tenants laboured under the hardships alleged, and to protest against the confiscation of the right secured to land-owners by the permanent settlement and the law of 1859.

Other legislative proposals which occasioned much discussion were a Factory Bill, an Octroi Bill, and (in the Bombay Legislature) a Bill for the Preservation of Game. The first was due in part to agitation in England. It was a permissive measure intended only to give protection to children and women, and to provide security from danger to life and limb. Nevertheless, the measure thus restricted met with so much opposition at Bombay that the consideration of it was deferred. The Octroi Bill was intended to prevent municipalities from levying (under colour of town dues) transit duties of a protective character. It, too, encountered

opposition among the provincial natives, to whom even the abuses of the Octroi system are inexpressibly dear. The Bombay Game Bill was intended to check the destruction of fish and game by establishing a close season at breeding time. It was vehemently opposed by some native gentlemen, partly from dislike to the introduction of anything like a Game Law: partly because the restrictions of the Act would injure the poor: and partly from a religious dislike to forms of sport involving the death or suffering of living things.

During the year an attempt was made, after many years' discussion, to admit natives to the higher grades of the Civil Service. Some had already attained the highest judicial office, and in every district much—most perhaps—of the ordinary magisterial and judicial work is done by natives of the uncovenanted Civil Service. But the educated natives claimed a more ample admission to the ranks of the covenanted Civil Service than the system of open competition in England had secured to them. The disadvantages native candidates laboured under were admitted; but every Secretary of State who had dealt with the subject had felt that a pure system of competition in India would not secure for the public service the class of men best fitted by race, by social standing, by character, by personal aptitude, to obtain the respect of the people, and work as honestly and ably as the average Englishmen whom the competitive system sends out. The system sanctioned by Lord Cranbrook was one of selection in India. Natives were to be nominated on probation to supply one-sixth of the vacancies occurring every year. They were to be taken from two classes, young men of good families, fitted by character and education, and persons who had already given evidence of their capacity in the Government service or some profession. The choice of the first nominees was left to the local government. The persons appointed were all of the first class, and as regards rank and educational attainments the list was satisfactory, while the conduct of the nominees augured well for the success of the experiment. But the educated natives were naturally indignant that the result of their agitation had done nothing to satisfy their claims. The new system, they complained, only increased the "subserviency" of natives to their European rulers, and in the bill of indictment against Lord Lytton no charge was more sincere than that of defrauding the progressive and independent class of their due. Several incidents during the year illustrated the preference felt by the English civilian for the old courtly type of native, to the new, enlightened, and independent class.

The restrictions to which Government asked the correspondents of Indian newspapers with the forces in Afghanistan to submit led to much angry protest, and later the order forbidding officers to act as correspondents suggested further complaints. The office of Press Commissioner had been the object of much abuse and ridicule when that functionary was regarded as censor of the vernacular

press and agent of Government for disseminating official views. Lord Ripon towards the end of the year proposed to abolish it, but the papers protested as vigorously against the abolition as they had against the creation of the office. The Commissioner, in fact, had proved a singularly cheap and satisfactory channel for obtaining accurate and early information, not only regarding military and political events, but on out-of-the-way questions connected with commerce and industry.

The report of the Famine Commissioners was issued during the year in two bulky Blue Books, full of interesting matter and disquisition, regarding every question which nearly or remotely connects itself with the condition of the agricultural classes in India. Its conclusions do not admit of being summarised, and as yet have been little discussed, much less acted on. Mr. Caird, who as an English authority on agricultural questions had been made a member of the Commission, availed himself of the invitation of the Secretary of State to give his views generally by a series of sweeping proposals which would revolutionise every department of the Indian administration. His courage and sincerity did not prevent the Indian papers from doubting the adequacy of his opportunities for studying the conditions with which he dealt so trenchantly.

The report of the Commission of distinguished officers which, under the presidency of Sir Ashley Eden, considered the question of Indian Army Reform, was received with greater respect, chiefly because its proposals had to be specifically adopted or rejected. Change of some kind everyone regarded as necessary. Nevertheless the report seemed to lack authority, for many of the officers appointed to the Commission were absent in Afghanistan during its sittings. We can only indicate the main features of the reforms understood to be suggested. Army administration is to be decentralised—separate territorial armies being formed. The anomaly of having the Commander-in-Chief as a Member of Council is to cease—the Commander-in-Chief being, as in England, a purely executive officer, and the Military Member of Council bearing to him the same relation that the English Minister of War bears to the English Commander-in-Chief. A great number of small military stations are to be abolished, great strategical centres being maintained. Provision is made for a system permitting rapid mobilisation. To obviate the evils of drafts of raw recruits from England, and frequent reliefs, no English soldier is to be sent to India who is of less than three years' service, nor any who is not prepared to serve for nine years. For the native army, a reserve force is to be created. The proposal for a local army is not approved, but the regiments are to be raised from fixed recruiting grounds. In the Bengal and Punjab armies, cadets of good families, who have had a military education, are to be appointed as officers; elsewhere officers are to be appointed by selection from the ranks. The native princes are to be induced

gradually to reduce their forces. The Staff Corps is to be finally abolished, and no military officer is to be allowed to be in civil employ. The railway system is to be completed with a view to military requirements. And lastly, volunteering (among European residents) is to be encouraged (not made compulsory). The result of the adoption of their proposals would, the Commissioners consider, lead to a yearly saving of 1,250,000*l*.

The adoption of the narrow gauge on a portion of the new line connecting Bombay with the Punjab, led to repeated protests at crowded meetings of the mercantile community at Bombay and elsewhere. Lord Ripon, when at Bombay, held out hopes that the question would be reconsidered, and the general feeling in India is undoubtedly that on commercial grounds the adoption of a uniform broad gauge is desirable, while on military grounds it is essential. Besides the extensions we have already noted, much progress was made within the year (especially in native states) in railway construction.

Trade, imports as well as exports, we may here say, had recovered in a very great degree from the depression of the preceding year; but the prospects of the general export trade of India were regarded as by no means cheering. Tea, especially, was depressed, though a syndicate had established new markets in Australia, and it was hoped that the settlement of the labour question would relieve the difficulties of the Assam planters. The discovery of valuable gold deposits in the Wynaad and adjacent districts of the Madras Presidency, had led to the formation of a great number of companies. The shares of many were soon at an enormous premium, and nothing occurred within the year to discourage speculators. On the lands which were the property of Government, mining leases on liberal terms were given. Much was hoped for from the impetus which the discovery would give to local development.

The rebellion in the Rampa district of the Madras Presidency lingered on even after the death of Chendria, the leader. But one by one the remaining heads of the movement were captured, and before the end of the year, the raids and riots which constituted the rebellion had ceased.

The operations against the Nagas were more serious. The men of Konoma, to which section of the race the war was confined, had escaped after the capture of that place to a position on the hills higher up, from which our force could not dislodge them. Thence a body descended in February to the plains and sacked a factory, killing the manager. For a time there was a panic among the coolies of the neighbouring estates, but soon efficient measures were taken against the recurrence of raids, and, a month after, the hostile tribesmen submitted. The Afghan war at this time strained our resources, and the terms imposed were not, it was said, sufficiently severe to prevent the recurrence of the offence—the murder of a British officer and the invasion of British territory.

This, perhaps, is a convenient place to say that the dislike the

native army felt to prolonged service in Afghanistan was evidenced by the difficulty felt in obtaining recruits in India; and this, though extraordinary inducements were offered.

The uncertain temper of the King of Burma added to our difficulties. When the year opened, his embassy was still waiting in their steamer at Thayetmo. In February they announced that they had received full powers to treat with the British authorities. The draft treaty, however, being examined, proved to be wholly unsatisfactory: no reference being made to the grievances of which we had complained with reference to the relations of our Envoy with the Court of Mandalay. Meanwhile the King had instituted a system of lotteries which replenished his exchequer but beggared many of his people, and sent crowds of starving peasants to plunder the villages on our frontier. In April news reached Rangoon that the drunken King, to avert the anger of spirits which had afflicted Mandalay with small-pox, was preparing a great sacrifice of human beings. There is little doubt that such a sacrifice was intended. The Irrawaddy steamer brought down thousands of fugitives to Rangoon. Our troops were still kept expectant on the frontier, and the society of Rangoon clamoured for intervention. But the Chief Commissioner was resolute in his policy of abstention. The Embassy, however, was told decisively that as they had nothing satisfactory to propose they had better return to Mandalay. At last they returned. But just then occurred an invasion of Burma from British territory. One of the two refugee princes escaped from Calcutta and managed to organise a small band on the frontier. With this he advanced, but encountering the Royal troops, the invaders were defeated. Renewing his attempt shortly after, the Prince (Nyoungoke) was again repulsed, and was made prisoner by our frontier police. The arbitrary detention at a Burmese port of one of the steamers of the Irrawaddy flotilla seemed likely to necessitate action on our part; but the act of the local Governor was promptly disavowed by the King. In October, a large detachment of Burmese troops came to one of the frontier posts and (it is said) gave out that they were going to exact amends for Nyoungoke's invasion. But eventually it turned out that they had only come in pursuit of robbers. Thus the year closed without war.

For a time it seemed as if the Sonthals, who inhabit part of the hilly region in the south-west of Bengal, were likely to be troublesome. The minds of these tractable, but still superstitious aborigines, had been alarmed by the preparations for the Census of 1881, and the agitation was stimulated by a new seditious sect, the Kherwars. The people were led to believe that the enumeration was a preliminary to a wholesale deportation. One band threatened one of the magistrates, and were so menacing that troops and police were poured into the district. But the effervescence soon subsided, and the census measures which had alarmed them were waived.

With Cashmere, too, relations were not altogether pleasant. The sufferings of the people during the year of famine had roused Indian opinion to a sense of the misrule of the Maharaja, and of the attractive nature of his country. The old cry for annexation, or at any rate interference, was raised in most of the papers of Northern India. He was accused of disloyalty: for the papers found by General Roberts at Cabul were said (and the assertion has been countenanced by official statements and official silence) to show that he had been in treasonable communication with the Russian officers and the Amir. It was believed that Lord Lytton intended to do something definite. But if so it was not done. The Maharaja came to Lahore to meet Lord Ripon at the festivities there. But he refused (on some question of precedence) to take part in the procession. While he was still in the sulks, news came of an outbreak at Gilgit, the station on the western frontier of Cashmere, close to the route over the Hindu Kush, from the Oxus valley to Afghanistan and India. It was said at first to be a revolt, but it was, in fact, an attack by the men of Yassin, the mountain region beyond the frontier. Major Biddulph, the English resident, held Gilgit successfully against the invaders, with a detachment of the Maharaja's Sikh soldiers, and the Yassinis were subsequently punished by a Chitral chief, who overran their country.

At the beginning of the cold weather Lord Ripon, leaving Simla, came to Lahore, where he held a great durbar and a review of the troops, among them some of the victorious regiments which had just come from Candahar. His speech to the assembled feudatories was noticeable chiefly by the absence of distinct reference to future policy in Afghanistan, and by its insistence on the need India had of peace and good government. But to the troops the Viceroy spoke with warm recognition of their valour. From Lahore Lord Ripon travelled hurriedly to Bombay, visiting the railway works in the Bolan, and the port of Karachi *en route*. Everywhere he had to receive deputations and do the harassing round of sight-seeing and ceremonial. The Indian climate is proverbially trying to those who face it in middle age. At Puna Lord Ripon was not well. At Allahabad he was prostrated with fever, which lasted for weeks. Not till the year was over was he really convalescent. The expressions of sympathy and respect were general, and beyond question, sincere. For in his public acts he had been singularly fortunate in avoiding offence even to those whose views he was not able to adopt.

The death of the Maharaja of Jaipur, a Rajput prince, who, without abandoning his native faith or manners, was in character and culture and aims thoroughly European, was deplored alike by natives and by Englishmen. He left no son, but the person he had nominated to be his successor was at once recognised and installed.

The son of the Raja of Chota Udaipur, one of the numerous petty states of the Bombay Presidency, was accused of having cruelly tortured and murdered his wife on suspicion—or rather

proof—that she had carried on an intrigue with a servant. An inquiry was held by an officer appointed for the purpose by Government. The proceedings were watched with keen interest by native society, but as the accused person was released from surveillance after the report of the inquiry had been submitted to Government, there was no occasion for any further display of feeling.

The visit to India of a party of American and Russian spiritualists is worth notice, because for a time they secured the sympathy and powerfully affected the belief of a large number of natives. Their professed object was to inquire rather than to teach, and the sacred writings of the Hindus, they trusted, would give them a key to the supra-sensuous universe. Calling themselves Theosophists, they established societies and published a journal in which Sanscrit scholarship was associated with the most recondite subtleties of spiritualism. At first they were regarded with some suspicion, and followed by detectives. But by degrees, even English officials received them with a certain courteous curiosity. At Simla, they became the sensation of the hour. The manifestations in the houses of some of the highest officials were published from day to day in the papers, and to prevent misconception it was found necessary to publish a quasi-official notification that the reception of the leader of the party at Government House did not imply official approval of the propaganda. The phenomena which created so much interest were of the kind familiar enough in *séances* and conjuring entertainments.

Naini Tal is one of the prettiest of the stations on the lower ranges of the Himalayas, to which officials and their families escape in the hot weather from the heats and vapours of the plains. Here in September occurred a great landslip by which over forty Europeans perished. Early in the day a partial subsidence of the hill-slope at one end of the lake had covered up some outhouses of an hotel. To rescue, if possible, the natives who were buried there, and to prevent further loss a number of English officials and visitors and a working party from the barracks were soon at work. With hardly a moment's warning a huge mass of broken rock and earth descended on them: buried the hotel and all who were in it or near it: swept across the road and over a hundred yards of level space to the margin of the lake, where it even covered the Assembly Rooms. It was hopeless to attempt to dig out the corpses. For a time there was a panic fear of further disaster, and the visitors streamed away to the plains. But when the extraordinary rainfall which had preceded and caused the landslip ceased, confidence returned. The Commission appointed to examine the station reported that an outlay on protective works and restrictive measures as to building would render the place secure. Government contributed liberally to the expense, and it was proposed to lay out the slope of *débris* beneath which so many Englishmen lay buried, as a memorial garden.

The approaching restoration of Mysore to the representative of the ancient line which had been set aside in 1832, led to much discussion. Under the long period of British rule the province had been administered chiefly by English officers. It was proposed, when the young Raja had attained his majority, to allow him to introduce a purely native *régime*; but to lessen the shock of the change it was decided before the transfer to substitute as far as possible native for British elements, in the administration. Already some natives had been advanced to the highest posts, and soon the remaining district officials were informed that they would be transferred from the province. Unfortunately the alterations proposed were not wholly pleasing to the people. For the native element introduced was not Mysorean, but Madrasi, and it was complained that an "alien" administration might quite as well be British as Madrasi. There was further the difficulty as to providing security for the protection of the private British interests—coffee-planting, for instance—which had grown up, and done so much for the development of the country. Bangalore, the British head-quarters, was the healthiest station in the Deccan for British troops, and a large amount of British money—Government money as well as private capital—had been spent in building and general improvements. The final arrangement was understood to be that Bangalore should remain British territory, the island of Seringapatam being ceded to the Maharaja as an equivalent.

The question of Eurasian education and the improvement of the condition of that large and neglected community occupied much attention, especially in Madras. In that presidency, the more fortunate members of the mixed race organised associations for promoting thrift and providing useful and suitable employment for their people—associations which it is admitted did much good. In Bengal, Archdeacon Baly's proposals for increasing the educational facilities on the lines approved by Lord Lytton were still under discussion.

We have already noted some important official changes. Sir Richard Temple hurried home from Bombay to be an unsuccessful candidate at the general election. He was succeeded by Sir James Fergusson. The Duke of Buckingham—his term of office having expired—left Madras, the Anglo-Indian papers indulging in by no means complimentary reviews of his administration, but the natives testifying, by repeated demonstrations, the respect and regard they had for him.

Other events just worth recording, and no more, are these. An attempt on the life of Lord Lytton was made by a Eurasian, whom investigation proved to be of unsound mind. Soon after the news of the disaster in Southern Afghanistan reached Karachi, there occurred among the Europeans of that large and flourishing part, a scare of a kind unhappily not unfamiliar in India. The arrival of some Pathan labourers gave rise to a report of an impending attack by Pathans; and, for a time, precautions indicat-

ing panic were taken. There was a somewhat similar scare at Ootacamund.

At Madras there was a panic of an even more dangerous kind among the natives—an absurd report passing from ear to ear that Government intended a great human sacrifice.

CHAPTER VII.

ASIA—*continued.*

I. CENTRAL ASIA. II. CHINA. III. JAPAN.

I. CENTRAL ASIA.

DURING nearly the whole of the year the relations of Russia with China were strained almost to the verge of war. During the period when Chinese authority had been overturned in its western provinces (Kashgar, &c.) Russian officers stepping in had saved the province of Kulja from anarchy and administered it successfully. The Chinese army having crossed the desert and destroyed the kingdom which the Atalik Ghazi had created, the Pekin Government was naturally anxious to resume the occupation of the fertile province of Kulja. By the treaty arranged at Livadia in 1879, Russia agreed to restore it on certain conditions, among which we need name here only the retention by Russia of a strip of territory which would give the European Power great strategic advantages for the command of Kulja or Kashgar, the payment of an indemnity for the expenses of administration, and the concession of valuable commercial privileges. The Pekin Government refused to ratify the treaty to the draft of which their Envoy had agreed, and the luckless Ambassador was thrown into prison and sentenced to death. The great host which China had in Kashgar was distributed in threatening masses along the Kulja frontier, and in China troops were being drilled and disciplined. Great preparations were being made to defend the coast and rivers, guns were being cast, and gunboats and ironclads were being built in China or ordered from Europe. On the side of Russia there was no lack of demonstration. The fleet in the Pacific received immense accessions of strength—troops were marched with great haste from Turkestan to Kulja, one detachment performing a marching feat worthy of General Roberts' men, and soon the province was said to be in a position to repel invasion. In spite, however, of frequent rumours of collision—of a Chinese invasion of the country north of the Amoor—and a successful advance into Khokand, there was, in fact, no fighting, though the Kulja border was harassed by robber raids and all friendly intercourse was stopped. Meanwhile, at St. Petersburg negotiations had dragged along. The Chinese Government, in deference to the Russian representations, released the disgraced Envoy, and the period for ratifying the treaty was prolonged from time to time by mutual agreement. Frequently it was announced that compromise was hopeless; the Russians it was said claimed

not only an enormous indemnity for the expenses of their defensive preparations, but also claimed the retention of part of the district in dispute as a refuge for the Dungans—a section of the population, which by its friendship to, and dependence on Russia, had become compromised with the Chinese, and would probably be the object of their barbarous resentment. Nevertheless, before the close of the year it was announced that a settlement had been effected, but, pending ratification in Peking, the stipulations of the treaty were not announced. Among the incidents of the dispute was a visit paid by Colonel Gordon to his old friends, the Chinese. That distinguished officer having left the Egyptian service, was appointed private secretary to Lord Ripon. On arrival at Bombay he discovered that his “turbulent” disposition unfitted him for the discharge of the duties of that post. So he hurried off to China in the interests of peace. He bluntly told the Mandarins not to fight, to shun European methods, to give their immense army simple weapons and simple discipline, and act always on the defensive.

The expedition against the Tekke Turkomans was a further tax on the resources of Russia in Asia. Whatever the original justification of the attack on the Turcomans might have been, the disaster to Russian arms at Geok Tepe in the preceding year rendered it necessary to do something to restore Russian prestige. Posts had been maintained at Chatte (at the confluence of the Sambhar and Attrek), and at Dusolum (north of Chatte, at the confluence of the Chandir and the Sambhar). In March, 20,000 camels were collected, a regular transport service was organised on the Caspian, and a railway was commenced across the desert from Michael's Bay (near Krasnovodsk), on the Caspian towards Kizil Arvat, the head of the Tekke line of posts. This railway, we may here say, though pushed on with vigour, was not completed more than one-fourth of the distance within the year. Meanwhile General Skobeleff, the “young” commander, who had distinguished himself so much in former Turkestan and recent Turkish campaigns, was appointed to the chief command. Towards the end of May a small detachment started from Dusolum, and occupied Bami, a post beyond the mountain wall along the north of which lies the long strip which forms the Tekke oasis. Bami, situated as it is in a fertile country, soon became a strong Russian fort and dépôt, drawing supplies first from Chikislar by the old (Chatte) route; then from Michael's Bay by the new (Kizil Arvat) route. In July a reconnaissance in force was made against Geok Tepe, but returned after an unsuccessful encounter with the Tekkes. Meanwhile, from the first the Turcomans had been organising a desperate resistance. Their old leader, Nur Verdi Khan, died inopportunely, but his son, Makdum Kuli Khan, inherited his spirit. He hung first with a great cloud of horsemen, threatening the Russians from a point between Kizil Arvat and Krasnovodsk. Early in the year, indeed, the Russians were almost besieged in Chikislar and Chatte. As the Russians established

themselves in the oasis thousands of Turcomans from Merv came to help their brethren in Geok Tepe. The earthworks of that fortress—or rather series of fortresses—were strengthened, and it was estimated that it would be held by a force of 30,000 warriors, armed with sword and rifle, and determined to fight to the death. Correspondents were rigidly excluded from the Russian lines, and the St. Petersburg Government took extraordinary precautions to prevent the publication of news. Thus many an unfounded rumour came to us through Persia. The best, perhaps the only, authority was the correspondent of the *Daily News*, who established himself on the border of the Turkoman country—first at Asterabad, then at Deregez (east of Geok Tepe), and at both places obtained tidings from Turkoman travellers or messengers. His idea was that the Turkomans would make a desperate resistance and then good-humouredly accept Russian rule as inevitable. Their great want was cannon; and they complained bitterly of not being supported by the English. Between June and the end of November the history of the campaign is one of constant attacks by the Turkomans on the Russian line of communications. Early in December a cavalry detachment of Russians surprised and captured a strong position, which seems to be situated about twelve miles west of Geok Tepe. On the 16th General Skobeleff made a second reconnaissance, which retired before a Tekke sortie. There had been a good deal of talk about the advance of a column from Tashkent to co-operate in the attack and to cut off the retreat to Merv. But the only arrival from that side was that of General Kuropatkin, who reached Bami with a small detachment from Khiva. On December 24 the third reconnaissance of Geok Tepe took place. There was a serious encounter about four miles from the walls, and again the Russians retired. The capture of the first of the three forts and the final assault of the stronghold belong to the history of 1881.

The year was an anxious one for Persia. On her northern frontier was Russia and the Turkoman country. The question of the Attrek boundary has long been a cause of unpleasantness between the officials of the Czar and of the Shah; and this year the Russian authorities were particularly anxious to use the Attrek valley as a route to the Tekke country, and to draw supplies, transport, and other forms of aid from northern Persia. In spite of the minatory language of a section of the Russian press, the Shah, it was understood, issued formal orders against the export of provisions to Chikislar; but, as usually occurs in Persia, the local officials winked at the systematic infringement of this rule. Towards the close of the Russian preparations, however, the Russian purchases of grain at Meshed were so great that the Shah peremptorily forbade further export. The Turkomans were as little pleased with his attitude as the Russians. They solicited his protection, indeed, but they did not comply with the conditions he proposed; and their raids harassed the border dwellers in

Khorassan quite as much as they harassed the Russian lines of communication. As General Skobeleff approached Geok Tepe, there were reports that the Tekke, when defeated, would withdraw into Persia.

On her eastern frontier, the disturbed condition of Afghanistan offered a lure to Persian ambition. Ayub Khan was undoubtedly equipped in part for his enterprise against Candahar by funds supplied from Meshed, and Ayub himself, in some sort, represented Persian interests at Herat. Part of the Beaconsfield scheme for the reorganisation of Afghanistan in its constituent provinces was to waive the stipulation of our treaty with Persia forbidding her to occupy Herat. The English Foreign Office opened negotiations with the Court of Teheran, the basis of which was that Persia should occupy the fortress of Herat and the whole province with extended boundaries towards Candahar and Beluchistan, guarantees being given by the Shah for good government and respect for English interests; it being further stipulated that in certain eventualities Great Britain would have a right of re-occupying it. Opinion in Russia was much stirred by the report of these proposals; but though the Shah started with a great army "on a pilgrimage" to Meshed, *i.e.* towards Herat, they led to no result, owing, it is said, to the Shah's incapacity to give the necessary guarantees and evidence of strength; and when Lord Granville succeeded Lord Salisbury no attempt was made to renew the negotiations.

Leaving Persia for a moment we may say here that the relations of Russia with the Turkomans and of England with Afghanistan suggested to the press of both countries a good deal of criticism more frank than friendly. It was understood, however, that for a time at any rate the financial embarrassment of Russia prescribed moderation, and the policy of consolidation rather than advance was known to be approved by the Czar's most powerful adviser. There were reports that Lord Dufferin sought assurances from Russia regarding Merv, and that Russia sought assurances regarding Candahar and Herat. All that is known to outsiders is, we believe, that there were naturally some informal enquiries and explanations on both sides. Abdurrahman's flight was regarded in England as an evidence that Russia wished to have a ruler of Afghanistan attached to her interests. That Prince himself stated that the Secretary of the Governor-General of Russian Turkestan suggested his visit to Afghanistan; but this was after Yakub's deportation, and as we accepted Abdurrahman, it could hardly be pleaded that Russia in permitting him to escape let loose on us an enemy. However this may be, the English Russophobists made much of certain papers discovered by General Roberts at Cabul, which were understood to show that the Russian mission to Shir Ali proposed to him a great scheme of joint action directed against British India. Abdurrahman, too, was said to have Russian advisers, and to be in constant communication with Tash-

kent. He certainly expressed a natural reluctance not to do anything disagreeable to his old benefactors. The Indian Government simply assured him that as Afghanistan was, by agreement, beyond the scope of Russian influence, it was unnecessary to define his future relations with that Power.

Famine had grievously afflicted the population of Northern and Western Persia when the Kurdish invasion occurred to complete the misery of the people of the West. The country of the Kurds belongs, part to Turkey, part to Persia, but the boundary line does not affect very much the movements of the nomad Kurds. Shekh Abdulla was an aged chief of the Turkish Kurds who exercised a great influence, half religious, half political. His sons Sadik and Kadir, terrified by the prospects of a reformed administration in Turkish Armenia, which would protect the peaceful population from their outrages, came into Persian territory, and after a time became lords of some villages. Shekh Abdulla seems to have conceived the idea of founding a Kurdish policy on the confines of the decaying Turkish and Persian powers. He came early in the year to Persian Kurdistan, and prepared the minds of the Kurds there for coming events. Later on his sons assembled their men, Turkish Kurds streamed across the border, and a Persian Kurdish chief, Hamza Aga, long notorious for turbulence and disaffection, raised the standard of revolt against the Shah. The country at the time was almost wholly denuded of regular Persian troops. The insurgents, numbering in all 15,000 men, armed with Henri-Martini rifles, advanced in two bodies, one south of the great lake of Urumiya and then northwards; the other went northwards on the western side of the lake. Everywhere they sacked and plundered villages and massacred the inhabitants. Some fortified towns surrendered; others were captured. The atrocities perpetrated, we ought to add, had not the sanction of the old Shekh, who attempted by punishments, quite as barbarous, to restrain the excesses of his people. The Sunni Kurds were, of course, fanatically pitiless to the Shia Persians; but the Christian communities were dealt more gently with. The Shah, on hearing of the outbreak, at once despatched troops from Teheran; others advanced from other towns. It was feared that before they could arrive the Kurds would have sacked the wealthy city of Tabriz. But they were detained by the siege of the cities east and west of the lake. Urumiya held out bravely to the end against the repeated attacks of the Kurdish host. On the east the victorious marauders wrangled as to future movements. Meanwhile the Persian troops arrived, and though they achieved no great success, yet desertions and disunions weakened the Kurds so much that the Turkish leaders had to retreat. But up to the close of the year there were rumours of renewed preparations for another effort the following spring. The Persian deliverers proved nearly as great a scourge to the unfortunate country people as the marauders they had expelled.

Indeed, though the employment of Russian and Austrian officers to train certain portions of the Persian army was the cause of some jealousy to other Powers, it does not seem that they have affected seriously the general morale of the Persian army. And in every branch of the administration there were the usual evidences of weakness and corruption. The outbreak had one important result, for it led to the recall to office of the Commander-in-Chief Hassan Ali, an official whose dismissal a few months before was regarded as an omen of some grave change in Persian foreign policy.

The movement led to some diplomatic recrimination between Persia and Turkey. Russia, too, was concerned, and assembled a corps of observation at Nakitchewan on the frontier. Russophobists attributed the rising to Muscovite intrigue, and foretold immediate intervention and annexation of the coveted Azarbaijan. But with the disappearance of the danger, disappeared also the chance that Persia would solicit or permit Russian interference.

As to exploration in Central Asia during the year, we need only note that Colonel Prejevalsky, starting from the Russian territory in Northern Asia, crossed the desert to the confines of Thibet. He even penetrated into that country, but before reaching Lhasa was turned back by the Thibet officials. He reached the Russian outposts in safety with a rich treasure of specimens, including some species of animals before unknown. An Austrian party, under Count Szeckenyi, also attempted to enter Thibet from China; but failing, like the Russians, reached Rangoon in safety. A purely commercial English mission visited Yarkand from India, and, of course, suggested alarmist paragraphs to Russian journalists.

II. CHINA.

Some few years ago the most confident statements were constantly made that the enormous mass of the Chinese Empire was falling to pieces by its own weight, nor were those who expressed this belief without abundant facts on which to rest this conclusion. Three rebellions—compared with which those known in Europe present something of the difference between a tropical hurricane and the solar storms revealed to us by astronomers¹—had, within the life-time of a generation, desolated some of its fairest regions. European Powers had dictated terms of peace at Canton and Peking, and the faith of the Chinese in the infallibility of their rulers had been rudely shaken by these convulsions and humiliations. Minor insurrections had been frequent, and the creed of Confucius seemed to be unsettled by contact with a foreign religion, which yet was not admitted as an efficient substitute. In 1877, a

¹ The loss of life caused directly and indirectly by the Taeping rebellion has been computed by careful investigators at twenty-three millions of human beings.

grievous famine devastated a vast area in the northern provinces; carried off between five and six millions of the population; left the majority of the survivors in the last extremity of poverty, weakness, and misery; and had not spent all its fury until the summer of 1879. Calamities of such prodigious dimensions can hardly have occurred previously in the history of mankind. But these untoward prophecies have been completely falsified, and at this moment no single sign can be discerned of coming disruption. The Government grows daily stronger. Under it is a vast population—united in their written language, in customs, sympathies, and superstitions; content with their civilisation as no other people is, frugal, industrious, unambitious, and unwarlike. The danger arising to the central authority from the large powers delegated to the provincial rulers in every department of government, has been for many years steadily diminishing, and Peking has resumed functions which convenience, or the ambition or administrative genius of individual viceroys, tended to alienate from it. It holds with a firmer hand the guiding rein of the country; the doubts of its wisdom and power have disappeared; and the distasteful presence of foreign representatives within its walls has had the unexpected effect of giving more substance to the central government, and of entirely subordinating the most powerful provincial viceroys to the will of the Emperor's advisers. The country is at peace within its borders; it is fast recovering from the effects of its calamities, and has no thought of the alternatives of spontaneous disruption or of absorption by Russia. The Chinaman on his little farm is a better citizen, a better man all round, and under a better government, than the *moujik* of a Russian village community, and both he and the world generally would be the losers by his transfer from the rule of his mandarins, the harshness of which he has more means of resisting than is usually believed, to the control of the Russian Tchinn.

Were this political revival due to the sudden manifestation of some such powerful personality as has from time to time transformed the fortunes of Eastern realms, little confidence could be felt in its permanence. The decadence in such cases is generally more than in proportion to the rise. The present retrieval by China of its past condition of anarchy and adversity is the work of the native Chinese spirit and the native Chinese system. Tartar arrogance, combined with the exclusiveness of the native officialism, had provoked war with Europeans, and the walls of the capital had been surrounded by European soldiery, against whose spirit and skill no defence could possibly avail anything. A medley of Confucianism and Christianity, resulting in the imposture of the Taeping leader, Hung-Siu-Tsuen, had perplexed and bewildered the minds of rulers and of people, who long remained stunned by these successive blows. Foreigners augured paralysis and approaching dissolution from the state to which the Empire was reduced. Millions of the population had perished; thousands of

square miles had been rendered desolate; scores of walled cities and towns sacked and burnt. But when the force of the shocks was exhausted it was seen that the surface of Chinese life alone had been ruffled. Beneath was the same old solid mass as ever—living its own life, having its own ends and objects, and moving on its own lines. The most populous is also the most cohesive and united nation in the world. The conservative force is in proportion to the mass; and if no man is so little governed as the Chinaman, and requires so little governing, it is because he carries within him an instinct of obedience to a system which makes his whole vitality.

In this state, then, the year 1880 dawned upon the Empire.

Early in January Chung-How, who, as Ambassador from China, went to St. Petersburg in 1878, returned to Peking with the treaty concluded by him at the Court of the Czar on the question of the rendition of Kuldja. By its provisions, part of the territory occupied by Russia temporarily during the abeyance of Chinese authority was to be restored to China; Russia, however, retaining the Tekes Valley and the Tien Shan passes into Kashgaria and Yarkand, the first of which is the richest part of Ili, and the second a perfect point of departure for new operations when the fitting opportunity and the proper motives appear. Russia was further to receive five millions of roubles to defray the expenses incurred in the temporary occupation of the country, and some important trade privileges, which may be shortly summarised as follows: China to allow to Russian merchants an overland trade route from Hankow, through the provinces of Shensi and Kansuh, to the frontier town of Inner Kansuh, Suchau, and thence along the regular road, *via* Hami, Urumtsi, and Manas, to Kuldja. This shortens the distance to Siberia very much, and the road is a well-frequented one, without any stretch of desert at all comparable with the interminable Mongolian sands, stretching between the Great Wall at Chanchia-kow and Kiachta, which make the present caravan route so tedious to travellers. China to allow Russia the free navigation of the Sungari river—a great privilege, as the Sungari drains a great part of Chinese Manchuria. Russian merchants to be allowed in Kashgaria and Sungaria, to trade without paying duties on their merchandise, and thirty-six frontier barriers were named as the recognised points of ingress and egress for caravans along the Russo-Chinese frontier. Every individual Russian merchant to be allowed to carry a gun. Russian Consulates and mercantile depôts to be established at Kiayükwan, the western extremity of the Great Wall, Hami, Turfan, Urumtsi, and Kuché. The frontier to the west of Kashgar to be modified, and special commissioners to be delegated by the two countries to determine the boundary line between Khokand and Kashgaria, and to mark it out by posts.

The particulars of this treaty had long preceded Chung-How, and had excited the warmest displeasure of the Court of Peking. The public outcry against him was commenced by Li Hung

Chang, the Governor-General of Chih-li, a man of marked ability and great prominence in the councils of the Empire, who urged the repudiation of the treaty on general grounds of policy. Far more bitter was the memorial of Tso-Tsung-Tang, the Governor-General of Kansuh, and the victorious general in Central Asia. Unlike that of Li Hung Chang, which merely expressed dissatisfaction with the result of Chung-How's mission, Tso's memorial was a rancorous attack upon the Envoy for making concessions to Russia, which were at once unnecessary, inexpedient, and humiliating. He urged that the Russians were bound by promise to restore Kuldja whenever the Chinese could prove that they were in a position to keep order there; pointed with pride to the state to which he had brought it, and with bitter indignation to the fact that Chung-How had signed away its richest valley and most important strategic points. An Imperial decree at once appeared in the *Peking Gazette*, announcing that Chung-How was handed over to a competent Board for trial and punishment on the charge that he had quitted his post and returned to China without waiting for a special order or permission from the Emperor—a mere specious pretext to cover the displeasure caused by the treaty. By the same decree the Extraordinary Great Council, consisting of the six principal and nine lesser Boards, the members of the Han-Lin College, and the Chan-She-Fu (the Imperial Superintendents of Instruction), and, lastly, the Censors, under the presidency of the members of the Grand Secretariat, was convoked, and ordered to take into consideration and report to the Throne upon the treaty concluded by Chung-How with the Russian Government. It was further ordered that not only the treaty itself, but also the report of the Tsung-li-Yamén on the same subject should be submitted to the Great Council for their consideration. On the following day another Imperial edict appeared, depriving Chung-How of his office as President of the Court of Censors, and, with the view of obtaining as large a body of official opinion as possible upon the treaty, a further decree appeared on January 15th permitting all officials, within and without Peking, whatever their rank, or whether in retirement or not, to report to the Throne their views on the subject.

Upwards of a hundred memorials, all more or less fierce, were the fruit of this invitation on the part of the Government, and by far the most remarkable of them was one submitted by Chang-Chih-Tung, a sub-reader in the Imperial Academy, of no high official rank, but well known as a man of culture and literary skill. It was too outspoken to appear in the *Peking Gazette*, but copies of it were hawked about far and wide, at first secretly, but soon openly. It commenced by reviewing the commercial clauses of the treaty, denouncing as a most dangerous concession the new overland route from Russia to Hankow. The navigation of the Sungari by Russian vessels would lead to a Russian occupation of Petuné, the most important city in Kirin; would place

the whole of the three provinces of Chinese Manchuria at their mercy; and give them a new point of departure for expeditions against the capital of China itself. If this privilege should be conceded to Russians, all nations would demand the same rights, in virtue of the most favoured nation clause in all the treaties, and therefore consent to it must be refused. By the Chinese Government abandoning the right to levy dues on the merchandise of Russian merchants in Mongolia, Russian merchants would profit at the expense of Chinese, who would be beggared, the Mongols being already poor and weak; if the Russians were allowed to fleece them, all the enormous expenses of the New Dominion campaigns would have been incurred in vain. Permission to the Russians to pass thirty-six frontier barriers was, in the opinion of the memorialist, monstrous and ridiculous. It would be far too long a line to preserve in time of peace, and would be fatal in time of war. To every one of the commercial concessions he objected in vigorous language, and with a force of argument which others besides the Chinese must admit. As to the establishment of Russian consuls in Chinese frontier towns, he feared that the whole frontier would soon pass under their control. Russian consuls would mean Russian garrisons, and the Chinese would soon find themselves guests in their own house. In the actual retroversion of territory to China by Russia, the memorialist protested stoutly that China had been befooled and betrayed. She was to give up rich and fertile land, and take back arid and stony land. Russia, indeed, was to restore three-fourths of Ili, but the Russian settlements beyond the passes were to remain, dominating the new dominion by their position, and checking the Chinese by their strongholds. In the country restored China was to get no new land to cultivate, no pastures, and no benefit whatever, and her communications with Kashgaria would have to pass through Russian territory. For a useless tract of land China would throw away 1,800,000 taels of most useful money. Thus the memorialist contended.

The marvel to Europeans is how Chung-How could ever have supposed that such concessions would be ratified by his Government, and the burst of indignation which followed their announcement seems natural enough.

On the 28th the Board recommended the dismissal of Chung-How from the Public Service, and his delivery to the Board of Punishments for correction. He was accordingly thrown into prison, and sentence was passed for his decapitation after the autumn assizes. Li Hung Chang is represented as having become alarmed at the possible consequences of the storm of public indignation of which his own memorial was the first breath, and as uniting his influence with that of Prince Kung and the Mantchu element of the Court to save Chung-How, whose execution they feared might lead to a rupture with Russia, and certainly would produce dangerous excitement in the capital. Associated with

Tso Tsung-tang in denouncing the treaty was Prince Chun, commonly known as the Seventh Prince. He is the young Emperor's father, a man of the highest influence at Court, as might be expected, and a violent hater of foreigners and their institutions. The degradation of Chung-How was accompanied by the exaltation of Prince Chun to the post of Commander-in-Chief of the forces throughout the empire, and whispers of the probability of his being admitted to a share of the Regency during the remainder of his son's minority. Since his son's accession to the throne he had been in retirement, and the prominence suddenly given him augured ill for the prevalence of wise and temperate counsels at a time when they were urgently required. The Imperial decree which contained the sentence of Chung-How also notified the appointment of the Marquis Tseng, the Minister to England, as Ambassador to Russia to negotiate a new treaty.

Meanwhile Russia was steadily and largely increasing her naval force in Vladivostock and the Chinese waters, and preparing to strike a blow at the vulnerable capital if the negotiations at St. Petersburg proved unsuccessful. Unusually large importations of munitions of war were at the same time made from the United States by China, and besides the fleet at Tientsin, a second squadron assembled in the Estuary of the Yangtze Kiang to cover the entrance of the great river. A feeling of excitement and uneasiness began to prevail among the Chinese of all classes in the north, and this gradually spread throughout the empire, the general conviction being that the sentence of death pronounced upon Chung-How would be followed by war with Russia. The monstrous barbarity of the sentence was strongly felt in Europe, and it is believed that some of the foreign Ministers at Peking protested against the indignities and unworthy treatment to which the envoy was subjected.

Be this as it may, Russia made the unconditional pardon and release of Chung-How an indispensable preliminary to the resumption of negotiations, and this was acceded to by China. The *Peking Gazette* of August 12 contained a decree in answer to a report from the Tsung-li-Yamên commanding his immediate release. The report stated that the Yamên had received a telegram from the Marquis Tseng to the effect that he was engaged in discussing the matters in dispute between the two countries, and that he begged the intercession of the Yamên with the Throne for the exercise of its clemency in the case of his predecessor. By this simple device the dignity of the Government was saved in the eyes of its subjects. It would have been impossible for it to admit that the pardon of Chung-How was regarded by Russia as an indispensable condition to the re-opening of negotiations, and hence the characteristic and ingenious subterfuge resorted to in the report.

There is always a peace and a war party in Peking, and generally some subject which ranges them one against the other, and

on this occasion their antagonism was specially fierce. Before the proclamation of Chung-How's pardon, the war party was in the ascendant; it then subsided, but a week afterwards was as rampant as before. The Grand Council was reproached in an Imperial decree for dilatoriness in advising the Throne, in spite of repeated commands to submit their opinions on questions of State, and for the wilful delay of business, to the detriment of the empire. The Grand Council is the Privy Council of the Emperor, and is a Cabinet composed of five of the principal heads of departments in the capital. The leading man among them is Prince Kung, and the pressure of the war party, headed by Prince Chun, doubtless extorted this reproof from the Regency. At this conjuncture Colonel Gordon appeared in Peking, and laid before Li Hung Chang a memorandum, which found its way into print, embodying his opinion on the existing military organization of the Chinese army, and its capacity of resisting attacks from a foreign power. It was characteristically honest, outspoken, and instructive, but too discouraging to find favour with those to whom he tendered his advice. The war party was sufficiently ill-pleased to be told that no reliance could be placed on the army in its present state, and that defeat must prove more disastrous than any previous conflict with Western Powers; while the peace party was not disposed to adopt or recommend measures which, besides their cost, could not but play into the hands of their rivals. Colonel Gordon pointed out that China's power lay in her numbers, the rapid movement of her troops, their few wants, and consequent small equipage. She should avoid pitched battles, but harass, weary, or starve her enemy; cutting off baggage trains, and worrying by night attacks. She should, he continued, protect the coast by torpedoes and mortars. Her fleet should consist of small quick vessels with light armour and draught of water; an asylum protected by an army should be provided for it; but no army was possible without honest and efficient military administration. Above all, the capital should be removed from Peking, which is too near the sea, to Nanking, which may be made unassailable.

That this excellent advice will be followed is wholly improbable; the most that can be hoped from it is that it may deter the Chinese from rushing into war. Potentially, they are strong. In the numbers and character of their people exists a basis for a military organization of formidable proportions; but, actually, they are weak and easily assailable. A great man on the throne, or near it, might convert this potential into actual or available force; and the objections now entertained by the old reactionary and anti-foreign party against a disciplined army under competent officers, would disappear before any serious fears that by this means alone could the empire preserve its integrity and traditional supremacy in Asia.

Apart from the desire, which must animate every humane mind, for the peace and orderly well-being of this vast empire,

with its hundreds of millions of industrious and frugal people, our own interests, as a commercial nation, are intimately bound up with the maintenance of its prosperity. During the last forty years its foreign trade has taken an enormous development, in spite of all that is restrictive, and much that is vexatious, in its provincial administration. Dating only so far back as the year 1865, we find that the foreign trade, then valued at 109,508,686 Haekwan-taels (32,945,620*l.*), had advanced to 154,508,686 taels (45,352,606*l.*), in 1879, with a corresponding increase of customs revenue from 2,486,784*l.* to 4,059,501*l.* The share in this trade enjoyed by Great Britain, her colonies and India, may be estimated as little short of 40,000,000*l.*, or eight-ninths of the whole. Even still greater is the preponderance of the mercantile marine of Great Britain over all other countries. The local carrying trade between the different treaty ports is chiefly divided between the British and Chinese, and the returns of 1879 are specially interesting as showing a large increase of local shipping of foreign build under the Chinese flag, and an equally marked decrease in the share of this trade taken by the United States of America.

The immobility of the Chinese is often the subject of comment and complaint, and they are contrasted in this respect, to their serious disparagement, with the Japanese. While Japan has freely adopted the views and many of the institutions of the Western nations, has sought to bring its laws into something like harmony with those of the Christian world, has laid railways and telegraphs, established a cheap postal system throughout the empire, given a considerable measure of freedom to the expression of public opinion, and even changed the name of its capital as indicative of a new order of things, China remains much what it was, in the general attitude and spirit of its civilisation, before its first collision with Great Britain in 1842. In Tôkiyo (Yedo) a large proportion of the well-to-do part of the population, most of the higher officials, the soldiery and police, and all the university students are attired in the dress of Europeans. But even Hong Kong itself, which has been under our rule for nearly forty years, and is an admirable example of the excellence of British colonial rule, may be searched through in vain for a single respectable Chinese who has adopted our dress, habits of life, and modes of thought. The Chinaman stands there face to face with much which we imagine must necessarily convince him of the superiority of our civilisation. He sees roads as admirably maintained as they are ingeniously planned and carried out; an ample water-supply, indicative of curious skill and admirable knowledge of the laws of nature; a swift, impartial, and intelligent administration of justice; solid and handsome edifices; convenient and imposing quays; a well-clad and orderly soldiery; war vessels of prodigious size and power; a fleet of ships and steamers bringing merchandise from, or taking merchandise to, every considerable port in the world. The daily papers bring him telegraphic information from

every side of the globe, and full reports of everything which transpires in the colony, enable him to state his grievances, or urge anything which he considers due or of advantage to his resident countrymen. But he still wears his *queue* and his skull-cap ; he does not exchange his blue cotton, or handsome silk, or glistening white grass-cloth dress for the garb of his rulers, no foreign boot or shoe ever touches his foot, no damask covers his table, no carpet his floor. As his forefathers were, so he remains ; and if, after thirty years of these experiences, he were to return to his native village, his mind would require no readjustment to its simple economy, or rebel for a moment against its monotonous insipidity. Throughout this vast empire, and even when removed from it, he remains the same. What he was at Canton or Foochow, that he is and remains, whether at Maimachin, in immediate contact with the Russians ; at Hong Kong, ruled by the English ; or in San Francisco, by the Americans. And everywhere he is shrewd, keen, clever, industrious, and orderly.

This radical difference between the Chinese and Japanese is, in all probability, attributable to the fact that whereas the civilisation of the Chinese is essentially the outcome of the Chinese mind, radiating outwards, *ab intra*, that of the Japanese was absorbed, *ab extra*, from the Chinese, so that while the one is indigenous and natural, the other is exotic and artificial. The danger of generalisations of this nature must be fairly faced and frankly admitted. They are often confidently made and plausibly supported, but as often are incapable of verification, or crumble away before subsequent sounder analysis. Though based upon indisputable facts, which in themselves would constitute sufficient causes for the phenomena they are applied to explain, they may not be the true causes of those phenomena, and thus the conclusions drawn from them are fallacious. Yet it is certain that the key to the understanding of the remarkable movement which the last twelve years have produced in Japan, is that the Japanese have thrown off the Chinese form of civilisation, and proposed to themselves to adopt that of European nations in its place. The Chinese are to this hour unshaken in their belief of the superiority of their system, and its greater claim to the confidence of the world, in its more perfect harmony with the mental and moral nature of man, with the purposes of government, and the development and elevation of the individual. On these grounds they refuse the claim of our asserted superiority, and even insist on their own ; and preposterous as this inversion of all reason may seem to us, the number of Chinese who hold it to be such may probably be told upon the fingers of two hands. The Japanese have arrived at different and indisputably sounder conclusions. They have applied Bacon's test to the two civilisations. They see that the one yields an abundance of 'fruit,' as exquisite in flavour as varied in kind ; while the other produces little that enriches or invigorates humanity, promotes its growth, or conduces to its

health and improvement. It is on this account that they have accepted the leadership of the Western nations, and refuse any longer to expend their vigour, like the Chinese, in marking time upon the face of the earth instead of marching forwards.

And yet, though China may have no 'proper' motion, or one so small as to be barely calculable, she is being insensibly yet surely carried along by the irresistible march of events. However long it may take her to realise that the control over the forces of nature possessed by the European nations is a valid ground for asserting the superiority of their civilisation, she is showing strong evidences of a disposition to avail herself of the machinery by means of which those forces are collected and dispensed. No sooner had the Chinese thoroughly realised their deficiencies in the art of war, than they proceeded to supply them; extensive dockyards, arsenals, factories for arms, steam and iron ships, Armstrong and Krupp guns were rapidly adopted, despite their cost and foreign origin. Steam launches are plying on the Grand Canal, and though the short line of railway between Woosung and Shanghai was torn up, and a telegraphic line stopped after being commenced, the last telegram from Tientsin announces a proposed line of wires from that port to the capital, not merely sanctioned, but commanded by the Government.

Nor is it alone in these directions that motion is observable. Under the auspices of Li Hung Chang it is proposed to erect cotton mills, to be worked by Chinese on their own soil where the raw material grows, and the supply of cheap labour is unlimited. Now cotton goods are the main staple of British exports to China, the material of which they are made is imported into England either from America or India, and the labour employed in the manufacture is far dearer than Chinese labour. That these data do not supply a margin for profitable operations in this direction, is inconceivable; and though British and American manufacturers may not have much to fear for some time to come from Chinese competition, they cannot ignore the base from which such a possible opposition may be directed against them.

The Convention made last year with China by the Government of the United States on the subject of Chinese emigration, threatens to produce in America a scarcity of a form of labour which has materially contributed to the prosperity of the Western States, and especially to that of California. In view of the value and quality of this labour, and the strong terms in which the abstract right of emigration is recognised by the United States, both in the Act of July 1868,¹ and in the treaty with China proclaimed in the same month of the same year, it is difficult to reconcile the purpose of the late Convention either with the true welfare of the States or the doctrines laid down in those two instruments. But the pressure brought to bear by the white labouring classes upon the State and Federal Legislatures has reversed the previous in-

¹ *Vide* Revised Statutes of the United States.

tentions of both, and the jealousy of Chinese labour has carried the day. In order to effect this purpose, however, it would appear that the actual numbers of the Chinese in the States, the dangers to be apprehended of and from an excessive influx of them, and the objections to them as a class of immigrants have been unduly exaggerated. Their opponents in California have loudly urged that their numbers would enable them to control any election if the ballot were placed in their hands; that they form an intolerable burden of which justice and expediency alike demand the removal, and that they neither contribute to the good morals of society nor to good government. It may be well to examine these allegations and test their truth by an appeal to facts.

The Census of 1870 gives the number of citizens in California, of twenty-one years old and upwards, as 145,802; while the number of Chinese males of the same age was 36,890. In the ten years which have since elapsed, the Chinese have increased about fifty per cent., but on the other hand, it is likely that the population of the State at large has increased in an equal measure. The actual vote of 1876 was estimated at 155,728, and if we add fifty per cent. to the Chinese adult population of 1870, we shall have as their whole number in 1876-80 about 55,000, or little more than a third of the voters.

The total number of Chinese in the States and Territories in 1870 was 62,674; and if the same proportion held in 1876-80, the number would be about 80,000.

But in a mass meeting held in Union Hall, San Francisco, on April 5, 1876, under the auspices of the Mayor, and presided over by the Governor of the State, an address to Congress was adopted, which set forth in a positive way that there were at that time 200,000 Chinese in the State, and 75,000 in the city. When the joint committee of the two Houses of Congress, on Chinese immigration, met in San Francisco in October 1876, statements of a similar kind were made by representatives of the municipality of the legislature, and one of the speakers went so far as to say that if the Chinese were allowed to come and stay in peace, half a century would not elapse before the Asiatics would outnumber the Americans on the American continent. It is hardly to be wondered at that resolutions adverse to Chinese immigration, and an address to Congress on the subject, resulted from these representations. The public records, however, amply disprove them.

In regard to the charge that they form an intolerable burden upon society, the evidence to the contrary is equally clear. The facts elicited by the joint commission already referred to incontestably prove not only that the labour of the Chinese has been of the greatest value to the State, but that work has been done by them which could not have been done without them, or would have been indefinitely delayed. The Transcontinental Railway, which has so enormously promoted the progress and prosperity of the State, is the most striking instance of this. In his

evidence on the subject, Senator Morton said: "I should think, on the Central Pacific Railroad, from my knowledge of it, four-fifths of the labour for the grading was performed by the Chinese—that is, from here to Ogden." The same witness stated that in the reclaiming of swamp land, the making of dykes, the digging of ditches, and that sort of work, Chinese are almost exclusively employed, their labour being cheap and procurable in almost any quantity, and their health not being affected by the malaria which is so fatal to Anglo-Saxons and Europeans generally. Mr. Crocker, well known throughout the States as one of the five proprietors of the line, and who has been long engaged in constructing railways, said that, contrary to his own strong conviction, and that of all those about him, that the Chinese could not build a railroad, he was compelled to resort to Chinese labour. Before this, he wanted several thousands of men, and advertised extensively for them, but never could get more than seven or eight hundred. Shortly afterwards he was working fully ten thousand Chinese. When questioned upon their powers of endurance, he replied, "They are equal to the best white men." Pressed again on this point, and asked whether tests had been applied to ascertain the true value of the white and Chinese labour respectively, he said, "Yes." To the question, "Who generally came out ahead?" he replied, "When they were working on a drift, as they sometimes did, if there was any difference it was with the white men; but the key of the situation was the summit tunnel, which was very hard rock, and we undertook to stock that with the best of white men. We considered them to be at that time superior to Chinamen, but we were unable to keep the work filled with white men, although we only worked eight hours. We worked in eight-hour shifts, and as we could not keep the work favourable, we put in a gang of Chinamen. Finally, before the work was half done, perhaps—I do not recollect at what stage—the Chinamen had possession of the whole work. At last the white men swore they would not work with Chinamen any more." The value and importance of this evidence seem amply to justify its production *in extenso*, and the closing paragraph affords an ample explanation of the bitterness of the opposition offered to the alien race.

In another important department of labour, viz., the cultivation of the land, the problem for California is, largely, to work out the means by which higher lands may be irrigated, and lower lands protected from overflow. In this State there are at present five millions and a half of acres under cultivation; there are eight millions suitable for grain cultivation; of swamp and 'tule-lands' which may be reclaimed, there are four and a half millions of acres; of dry lands, rich but useless without irrigation, there are twenty-five millions of acres. At the cost of white labour, this uncultivated, unwatered, and swamp land cannot be utilized; at the cost of Chinese labour it can. The former Surveyor-General of California estimated the increase in the value of the

property of the State created by Chinese labour in the building of railroads and the reclamation of swamp lands alone at \$289,000,000. This wealth is owned, held, and enjoyed by white men, and not by Chinamen. The charge that they convey or transmit to China the wealth they create is idle; they could not do so even if they would.

In the cultivation of fruits, the making of wine, the manufacture of boots and shoes, woollen goods of all kinds, of cigars, of soap and candles, of jute grain-bags, of cordage, and a hundred other articles; in mining, as domestic servants, as laundry-men, the Chinese are almost invaluable to the white inhabitants of California, and many of these industries must be abandoned if the cheap labour, which is their chief foundation, is withdrawn.

The statement made that the Chinese have displaced the labour of white men in California is not true; rather is it true that they have produced an exactly contrary effect. They have done a vast amount of work which the white man could not have been paid for, and, in doing this, they have so greatly increased the prosperity of the State, and rendered access to it so easy, that thousands, perhaps hundreds of thousands, have found a way opened to them which, but for this labour, they could never have availed themselves of. In the year 1875, 44,937 more persons entered the State by the railway than left it; and whereas the population in 1870 was 560,247, it was estimated at 900,000 in 1876, the included years being those in which the full influence of the construction of the road began to be felt.

The plea urged against the importation of Chinese labour, that it is attended with evils analogous to those of the slave trade, would be valid, indeed, were it true. No jealousy could be blamed which guarded a land of free men from the re-imposition of a taint from which they purged themselves at such a cost and by so fiery a process. But it has been abundantly proved, by investigations of a most searching nature, that no such taint clings to the immigration of Chinese labourers into America. "A great, free people," says one of the witnesses on the Commission appointed to investigate this subject, "cannot afford to wage a war of races based upon a tissue of falsehoods and wilful misrepresentations, instigated by prejudice, ignorance, and bigotry, and conducted on the methods of political chicanery."

It will not be denied, however, that great as are the services which have been rendered to America by the introduction of cheap labour, the presence in a State—say of California, for example—of sixty or seventy thousand Chinese, nearly all of whom are adult males, mostly unmarried or absent from their families, tends to produce a condition of things from which evils of a serious nature must necessarily arise. But analogous evils have been successfully dealt with in some of our Eastern and Australian settlements, and there seems no reason why they should not be equally well controlled in America.

The last point of any real weight which can be urged against a liberal policy in regard to Chinese immigration into the States, is the alleged danger that—to use the expression of the anti-Chinese partisans—the Pacific coast will become “Mongolianised.” But the relative numbers of the European stock and of the Chinese in the State of California lend no support to this apprehension. Taking the census of 1870 as a basis, and making estimates from it for the year 1880, the proportionate number of Chinese to the total population was:—

In 1870 about 1 in 11½.

In 1880 about 1 in 17.

During the period up to 1870, the total immigration and increase of the whites was	499,424
And of Chinese	49,310

So that the immigration of whites exceeded that of Chinese by	450,114
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Again, assuming the correctness of the estimates based on the census of 1870, the total increase of whites has been	900,000
Against a total increase of Chinese of	75,000

The excess of white increment is therefore	825,000
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It may also be pleaded that the Chinese are not migratory nor aggressive. In spite of their proximity to the European settlements in the Malay and Philippine archipelagos and Cochin China, the pressure of population within, and the attractions of a congenial climate and excellent government without, their numbers in these tropical regions are small. In the English, Dutch, and French dependencies their total numbers certainly do not exceed 450,000, and though they have taken a strong position in Siam, under the great encouragement extended to them in that kingdom, their numbers in Annam and Burmah are small; they have left Corea untouched, and have for centuries respected the rights and boundaries of their neighbours. Under normal political and social conditions, the occupation and control of a country by a dominating race must sufficiently guarantee it against any excessive immigration from an inferior race. The allurements presented by California in its early history were exceptional, and the white population was, as indeed it still is, insufficient to meet the ordinary demands for labour. The Chinese were thus seen moving spontaneously into districts owned by the white man and meeting those demands. The dominant race used the inferior race for advancing its purposes, as dominant races have done in all ages. But as the need disappears, and immigration from Europe supplies the demand for labour, the attractions to the Chinese will diminish, and with this their numbers. Indeed, the latest figures published indicate that the Chinese population is falling off rapidly, not only relatively to the white population, but in absolute numbers.

III. JAPAN.

Japan is now in the enjoyment of profound peace. The last throes of expiring feudalism were seen in the Satsuma rebellion of the year 1877, which, though gallantly headed by Saigo Kichinosuke—a man whose singular simplicity and elevation of character had made him the idol of his class—was quelled after much severe fighting and serious embarrassment to the executive. Whatever fresh taxes may have been imposed to defray the large expenditure entailed by this rebellion, they were wholly inadequate to meet more than a very inconsiderable share of it; a foreign loan was rightly deemed to be neither desirable nor practicable, and resort was had to large fresh issues of the inconvertible paper currency already circulating in at least sufficient volume for the commercial requirements of the country. The inevitable consequences ensued. The paper sank below its par value, and, as a bad currency will always expel a good one, the gold and silver were displaced by the depreciated paper, and left the country in quantities which caused equal alarm to the Government and embarrassment to trade. From a small discount, the notes of the Government have fallen to the alarming figure at which they now stand, and though announcements are constantly made in the Government organs that considerable quantities are called in and destroyed, no conviction seems to be felt that they are not replaced by fresh issues. Be this as it may, the discount on the notes affords an exact measure of the excess of issue; and as there is no difficulty in ascertaining the period of the first symptom of depreciation, it may with certainty be concluded that every note subsequently issued is in excess of the power of the country to float it at par. The difficulty of restoring the paper currency to its par value is, unhappily, a far more serious problem, and its solution will tax the ingenuity of the best heads in Japan. Nothing, however, in the realms of political economy is more certain than the rapidity with which countries recover from the mischiefs caused by the ravages of war, or from disasters attendant upon the malign forces of nature, if only the population have not been extirpated. The enormous extent to which this took place in China during the Taeping rebellion finds no parallel in Japan, even after making due allowance for the different proportions of the respective empires, the small area affected by the Satsuma insurrection, and its very short duration. The *vis medicatrix nature* will therefore surely and quickly repair the losses incidental to this outbreak, and, as the more immediate financial troubles of the Government are due to the expenses incurred in its suppression, they ought to disappear gradually, yet steadily, now that undisturbed peace reigns throughout the country.

Not the less certain is it, however, that the laudable ambition of Japan to advance her people in the scale of civilisation, and to

occupy with dignity that place in the comity of nations to which she aspires, mainly depends for its realisation upon a successful and scrupulously honourable management of her finances. The expedients to which she appears inclined to resort at this moment are hardly calculated to impress European critics with their economical soundness, and it is not to be denied that, in times of transition, such as that which Japan is still passing through, the native creditor is always in danger of injustice. He is isolated, practically unrepresented, and individually weak; and unless there is equal power and determination at head-quarters to do him full and complete justice, he inevitably suffers. The temptations to which absolute governments are exposed at such times are at least as much as human nature, and especially human nature acting in the corporate form of an oligarchy, can bear; and if there be one ground stronger than another on which the Japanese people may legitimately urge their claim for something approaching to free representative institutions, it is the sure one that these institutions can alone be relied on to protect the public creditor from the maladministration, the rapacity, corruption, and injustice inseparable from absolutism.

Among the purely legitimate expedients open to the Japanese for the increase of their revenue, is that of raising the tariff upon which their foreign trade with the Western nations is based. But the treaties on which these commercial relations depend have the tariff tacked to them, and this can, therefore, only be revised at periods specified in those instruments for the revision of the treaties themselves. There can be no question that it was in the true interests of both the contracting parties that this provision was originally made. The tariff was moderate and reasonable; moderate, inasmuch as it tended to promote and foster commercial relations; reasonable, in that it made fair provision for a good surplus of revenue over the expenses of collection, and those incidental to the settlement of Europeans in the treaty ports. One thing alone can be more certain than that it was well, both for Europeans and Japanese, that this tariff should be irreversible except under the conditions already specified, and that is, that it would have been liable, and doomed to perpetual, capricious, and most vexatious alterations had its stability not been so secured. Under this wise and beneficent provision a large trade has sprung up and struck deep and wide roots, and, as a question admitting of no intelligent dispute, it has been to the common advantage of all the parties to it. But, pressed as the Japanese have been since the opening of the country to foreign trade by a revolution which has convulsed not only its centre but its most distant extremities, with Cabinet succeeding Cabinet, and Finance Minister succeeding Finance Minister, this beneficial trade never could have flourished but under the kindly and reposeful shelter of a tariff securely guarded from capricious and empirical variation.

The year 1872 was fixed as the period for the revision of these

treaties, and it was expected that negotiations to that end would have been opened during the visit which the Sadaijin, Iwakura, paid to the capitals of the various treaty Powers in that year. But, owing to delays arising from various causes, and in spite of the desire of all the Western Powers to consult the entire convenience of the Japanese in regard to the time and place of discussion, these negotiations are still in a very backward state. The two points mainly pressed by the Government of the Mikado as acting prejudicially to its material interests, and derogating from its sovereign position, are, first, the provisions of the tariff and the inability of the Cabinet to modify its terms as necessity or policy may seem to demand; and, second, the provisions for extra-territoriality jurisdiction, which were amongst the most important and necessary clauses of the original treaties. In regard to the former of these contentions, it may be conceded that certain modifications in the tariff may be made without serious detriment to trade, and with benefit to the Imperial revenues, though it should always be borne in mind that any marked departure from its old lines may purchase immediate advantage at the expense of the general welfare and prosperity of the country.¹

In regard to the second point, the Japanese plead that they have heartily adopted and embraced the civilisation of the Western nations, have framed a code of laws pervaded by the spirit which animates the codes of those nations, have established courts, regulated methods of judicial procedure, and possess a body of men as judges whose impartiality, integrity, and professional knowledge and capacity are ample guarantees to us for the efficient administration of justice. That they have undertaken these things is unquestionable, nor can they be too heartily congratulated upon the advance in their institutions which the attempt implies. But the difficulties which surround the concession to them of jurisdiction over the subjects and citizens of the Christian Powers are so formidable, and so fraught with the danger of constant and serious collision, that the utmost caution is necessary in modifying the existing clauses in the treaties which apply to this subject.

The grievances complained of as attaching to the present system are mainly sentimental, and the Western Powers have not yet seen their way clear to grant jurisdiction to nations whom the Japanese must, at least for the present, be content to regard as more advanced than themselves in the scale of civilisation. The subject is so serious, and so many complaints have been made that the Western Powers are indisposed to do the Japanese justice in this respect, that we cannot do better than give the following extract from an essay written in July last by one of the ablest of the native journalists, and published in the *Nichi-Nichi Shinbun*, a paper holding a leading position:—

¹ It has been well said that 'a statesman may do much for commerce, most by letting it alone. A river never flows so smoothly as when it follows its own course, without either aid or check. Let it make its own bed: it will do so better than you can.'

“Let us now give an example of what may befall a native of Japan under the existing laws. Suppose that a gentleman by his conduct in some way arouses the suspicions of the police. They can enter, or, if necessary, break into, his house at dead of night, without giving the slightest notice or having any warrant. Although they may be disguised, and have nothing to evidence the fact of their being constables, they can arrest him, rummage through his private papers and effects as they please, and then thrust him into prison, where he may be kept for weeks or months undergoing preliminary examinations. The unfortunate accused may be charged with all kinds of offences, refused bail, denied all intercourse with his friends—in fact, deprived of every trace of freedom; and, after all this, if the preliminary investigations prove his innocence, he has no redress for the injuries sustained, and is obliged to be thankful for his escape, and accept some small monetary compensation for his inevitable losses. On the other hand, if the preliminary examinations result in the charge being sent to a higher tribunal for investigation, the accused must there answer all interrogatories put to him. Although the court may be sitting with closed doors, and the public excluded, no exception can be taken to it. The accused will not be allowed the assistance of counsel in his defence, and, altogether, unless he happens to be remarkably clever and well versed in law, it is almost hopeless to expect he will be able to extricate himself from the meshes of the net which surrounds him, although he may be perfectly innocent of the crime laid to his charge. Trial by jury is unknown, and consequently the question of guilt or innocence is in the uncontrolled discretion of the judge who presides, and, in many cases, conducts the trial. No doubt there is a right of appeal, but that is to a single individual, and if he happens to adopt the same view as the judge of the inferior court, the accused is without further redress. It is also a fact, that if a person is acquitted on a charge, he may be tried for the same offence again and again.”

It would be impossible to adduce more conclusive evidence to prove the danger of any concessions in the direction so ardently desired by the Japanese. Doubtless they would take every precaution against the fate here depicted overtaking a foreigner; but where such possibilities exist, the Western Powers will hardly place their subjects or citizens within their reach.

The somewhat stringent laws made about six years ago for the regulation of the Press have undoubtedly conducted to the elevation of its character, and to a sobriety and good sense in its attitude towards the Government, which can hardly be commended too highly. No impartial observer will deny that, on the whole, these laws have worked well, though they have undoubtedly been at times the instruments of considerable hardship. Still less will it now be contended that the full measure of freedom enjoyed by the Press in countries constitutionally governed, could, without

the greatest danger, have been granted to a people just emerging from the institutions of feudalism, and wholly unaccustomed to the exercise and enjoyment of individual and political liberty.

The dispute between China and Japan respecting the right of sovereignty over the Loo-Choo Islands is yet unsettled, but little doubt seems to exist that the stronger claim lies with Japan. The slender present yearly carried to China by the Loo-Chooans appears to have been rather an offering suggested by gratitude and good-feeling for the privilege accorded to them of carrying on an advantageous trade with that country, than, as the Chinese plead, a tribute in acknowledgment of the rights of the Emperor as suzerain of a dependency. It is true that on the death of their king, the name of his successor was always submitted to the Court of Peking; but the Japanese deny, and apparently with good reason, that any power of veto resided in the Emperor of China. They also contend that, for some centuries, the princes of Satsuma have been the undisputed lords paramount of Loo-Choo; and that, therefore, when the rights formerly possessed by the Daimios merged, as they did at the Restoration, into the Mikadoate, as the political centre of gravity, and the depository of all hitherto uncombined powers in the empire, the sovereignty over Loo-Choo fell into the central body. On the conversion of the *Han* into *Ken*, or, in other words, the deposition of the Daimios, the so-called King of Loo-Choo was made Governor of the principality, from which he was subsequently recalled, and he now resides in Tokio, a pensioner of the Imperial Government. The Loo-Chooans themselves, a simple and submissive people, are naturally somewhat anxious about their fate, and dread lest their islands should become alike the field and the object of the contention. They regard China and Japan respectively as their father and mother, and are greatly perplexed which to renounce at the bidding of the other. Their petition, presented to the Japanese Government in the year 1876, is so simple and touching that we shall easily be pardoned for giving two or three short extracts from it:—

“It is the natural instinct of man, when in great distress, to pray for relief, either to Heaven or his parents. We are in this state of distress; and as our power is ineffectual to relieve us, we make the following prayer from our hearts, in hopes that you may take pity upon us and hear it. From the king down to the commoners all are taught the precepts of truth and propriety, which stand us in the stead of army and navy, wealth and luxuries, and to them we owe it that our country has been preserved to us. It is not our wish that we should serve two masters, but a sense of necessity compels us to do so. Our people are accustomed to say that as Great Japan is our father, and Great China our mother, we should reverently obey them both. Surely there is no place where a child is required to obey its father and forsake its mother. Should a child obey such a command, it could not be

said to be observant of virtue and propriety. Now, what the Japanese Government commands is this, that we should serve only our father and should forsake our mother. This causes us the deepest sorrow. . . . The inhabitants of Loo-Choo, we repeat, from the king down to the commoners, are taught not to forsake truth and propriety, and are commanded to obey both father and mother. Thus it is hard to bid them sever their connection with China, and, even though thus commanded, they could not consent to do so. Confucius has said 'Truth is more precious than life,' and Mencius says 'Life is precious and so is virtue. If it is found that they cannot co-exist, cast away the former and cleave to the latter.' When we were leaving the harbour of Naha, our king Shôtai commanded us, saying, that if we failed in our mission we could hope for no forgiveness from him, and must forfeit our lives. If the Japanese Government would send an official to China, and prevail on the Chinese Government to send an envoy to Loo-Choo announcing that the kingdom belonged to Japan alone, all would be well, for this would show that the Loo-Chooans had not forgotten all the former favours bestowed on them by China. But if it be otherwise, and the Loo-Chooans are themselves forced to announce that they belong to Japan alone, both truth and propriety would be violated, and when men forsake these virtues they are in nothing superior to the beasts. We might, indeed, derive increased protection from Japan, but our honour would be lost. The Japanese Government urges this matter upon us, but the opinions we express are those of all the Loo-Chooans, and we are placed in such a strait that we can neither comply with the wishes of the Japanese Government nor return home. Yet there is but one road for us to travel, and that leads to death. When the bird is about to die it sings a sorrowful note, and the stricken deer utters a plaintive sound. The sorrows of death are about us, and our prayer is but a mournful lamentation. We are careless of our own lives, but the life or death of our islands hangs on this question, and we entreat Your Excellency to give good heed to and pronounce a favourable judgment on this our most earnest prayer."

The following summary of the financial condition of Japan has been compiled from figures gathered on the spot:—

The public receipts for the year which ended June 30 amounted to 55,651,379 yen (the yen is about equal to the American dollar), or 11,130,276*l.* nearly. Of this sum 41,000,950 yen came from the Land Tax and land rent charge, and 457,500 from other direct taxes. Customs produced 2,181,310 yen, and other indirect taxes 7,643,069 yen. Receipts from industrial undertakings managed by the State were 1,194,940, and from various other sources 3,173,610 yen. The expenditure for the year was equal to the income. Interest on public debt, provision for sinking fund, and repayments absorbed 21,200,280 yen; the army 7,190,100 yen, the navy 2,636,300 yen; police, 2,486,452

yen ; public home civil service, 19,236,444 yen ; diplomatic and consular service, 500,000 yen. The Civil List, including the appanages of the members of the Imperial family, amounts to only 877,000 yen, or 175,400*l.*; pensions amount to 1,059,404 yen ; administration of the cities and provinces, 3,786,700 yen ; buildings and embankments, 1,987,000 yen ; industrial undertakings, 1,005,084 yen ; temples, 135,000 yen ; miscellaneous expenditure, 1,877,814 yen ; reserve, 1,500,000. Among the sub-heads of home civil service we find 300,000 yen set down for the Council of State, 170,000 yen for the Department of Foreign Affairs, 1,314,800 yen for the Administration of Justice, and 1,139,870 yen for the Department of Education. The public debt amounts to 250 millions of yen, or about 50 millions sterling. But very nearly four-fifths of this partake of the character of our terminable annuities. When, some years ago, the Japanese political system was reorganised and the pre-existing feudal arrangements extinguished, the Government took upon itself the obligation of providing for the "Samurai," or feudal retainers of the Daimios, and also for some colleges of priests. But, at the same time, it took over the ownership of various parcels of land scattered over the country which had been previously burdened with those charges. These lands are let at a very moderate rate, and it is the income derived from this source which figures as "land-tax," and is such an important item of State revenue, amounting to about 75 per cent. of the whole. The charges for which this fund is primarily liable will be extinguished in about twenty-five years, while the lands and their income will remain the property of the State. The interest paid on the several portions of the public debt varies from 4 to 9 per cent., the average being 6 per cent. This must be considered satisfactory, since the ordinary rate of domestic interest in Japan is from 12 to 15 per cent., and the Chinese Government has had to pay 8 per cent. on its last loan. The population of Japan is about 34 millions. The peace establishment of the army is fixed at one man for every thousand of the population, exactly one-tenth of the ratio fixed for the German Empire. The military charge amounts to 9 15-17*d.* per head of the population, and the total amount of taxation, properly so called, is only a minute fraction more than 1*s.* 2½*d.* per head.

CHAPTER VIII.

AFRICA.

I. EGYPT.

AFTER ten years and more of feverish agitation, culminating in the collapse of the arch agitator, Egypt has devoted the past twelve months to the dull monotonous task of paying her debts. Under pressure from without, she has learnt the maxim of the policy of honesty, and strange to say that, whilst her creditors are satisfied, she herself seems in no way impoverished. The amazing fertility of the soil, the patient laboriousness of the fellaheen, and the other resources of the country which had hitherto been used to attract the avarice of speculators, at length began to commend themselves to the confidence of investors. The history of 1880, as far as Egypt is concerned, is the history of the restoration of her credit, and of her fair start on the road to commercial and agricultural wealth. The leading strings in which the Khedive consented to carry on the government may, on various occasions, have galled him not a little, but great praise is due to Tewfik Pasha for his unswerving loyalty to the Powers who placed him on the throne, and for the strict impartiality with which he has listened to the recommendations of the rival Powers. On more than one occasion he supported his own Ministry against their demands; but more frequently his influence was invoked, and not in vain, to prove to his Cabinet and subjects the necessity of submitting without a murmur to the necessities of the political or financial situation. The latter was the more critical. From the very first moment of his advent to power he had been forced to face two inevitable changes—the reduction in the rate of interest on Government bonds, and the abolition of the Moukabalah tax, in reality a double tax on all landowners, and one of the latest devices of the ex-Khedive. Under a promise that all landowners paying for a series of years a double tax should subsequently only pay one-half of the regular land-tax, Ismael Pasha had aroused hopes of permanent relief which he never intended to realise; whilst in like manner his assurance to his creditors and the European Powers that the proceeds of the double tax would be devoted to paying off the public debt was merely intended as a cloak for further extravagance and folly. The result showed that the double payment was practically impossible. When the Moukabalah was regularly paid, the ordinary land-tax fell into arrear, and when the ordinary tax was paid the Moukabalah was neglected. The tax had been useful to the ex-Khedive as a means for obtaining short loans at an exorbitant rate of interest, and had been one of the origins of the floating debt of six millions, contracted within three years, with which the European Controllers had to deal.

Early in January the financial report of the Controllers was presented to the Viceroy. In it the difficulties of the situation were in no way palliated; at the same time the possibility of re-establishing Egyptian credit was never doubted, if only the Egyptian Government would undertake "to draw a distinct line of demarcation between the past and the future, and to decide that by the enforcement of a new law all claims prior to its promulgation should be finally liquidated." With this object the Commission of Inquiry proposed the insertion of the following clause in the new law:—

"From the date of the publication of this law no privilege or mortgage debt shall be registered, and no seizure shall be made, and no proceedings taken in the nature of sequester or execution in virtue of any right of action acquired against the Government previous to"

To this report the Khedive replied by fixing the time of demarcation between the future and the past at December 31, 1879. He also resolved to maintain at 5 per cent. the rate of interest on the Privileged Debt; to pay a minimum rate of interest of 4½ per cent. on the Unified Debt; to convert short loans into bonds of the Unified Debt; and to make a special arrangement for the claims of the Paris Syndicate.

The report of the Controllers was promptly followed by the publication of the budget, which was, in general opinion, based upon a very fair and liberal estimate of the requirements of the public service. The land revenue was thought by some to have been fixed at a somewhat high figure, seeing that the area of taxable land barely exceeds four and a half millions of acres; but in other respects the budget was of most modest proportions as compared with that for 1879, framed for financial and speculative reasons, which promised a revenue of nearly eleven millions sterling.

The actual figures of the Budget of 1880, as approved, were—

RECEIPTS.		£E.
1. Direct taxes:—		
Land tax		5,227,338
Other direct taxes		297,238
2. Indirect taxes and revenues:—		
Justice	180,548	
Customs	622,528	
Post Office	75,951	
Salt	100,000	
Octrois	247,655	
Other indirect taxes	303,900	
		1,530,582
3. Railways and telegraphs		1,079,500
4. Postal packet service		128,100
5. Revenues from other administrations of the State		153,041
6. Miscellaneous taxes		40,599
7. Miscellaneous receipts		30,358
8. Repayments of advances made to the peasants		29,935
9. Provision for pensions of <i>employés</i>		44,911
Total		£E8,561,622

EXPENDITURE.		£E.
1. Tribute		681,486
2. Public Debt		4,238,592
3. Civil List, &c.		315,000
4. Khedive's Household		41,822
5. Council of Ministers		5,796
6. Ministry of Foreign Affairs		11,326
7. Ministry of Finance		531,944
8. Ministry of War:—		
Army	£E.	360,000
Navy		54,734
		414,734
9. Ministry of Public Instruction		59,415
10. Ministry of the Interior		480,883
11. Ministry of Justice		244,300
12. Ministry of Public Works		447,871
13. Ministry of Railways and Telegraphs		442,660
14. Customs		49,828
15. Post Office		64,739
16. Postal Packet Service		127,836
17. Salt		21,562
18. Government Warehouses		15,092
19. Reserve for unforeseen expenses		160,000
20. State Pensions		216,736
Total		£E8,561,622

In this estimate, as will be seen, the interest on the Unified Debt had been calculated at 4 per cent., at which rate it had been provisionally fixed by the Commission of Inquiry of the previous year, and for the present, in spite of the pressure brought to bear upon the Government and the Controllers, any higher rate of payment seemed impossible. The public debt of Egypt was probably not out of proportion to its resources had there been means at hand to develop them; for, as will be seen from the following *résumé*, the indebtedness of the country was not more than thirteen times its annual income:—

	£
Unified debt	56,000,000
Privileged debt	17,000,000
Domaine debt	8,500,000
Short loans	1,500,000
Floating debt	6,500,000
Dairas debt	9,500,000
Moukabalah	16,000,000
Rouznameh	1,900,000
Total	£116,900,000

The real weakness of Egypt's position, however, lay in the very limited extent of her commerce compared with countries of similar population,¹ which forced the framers of the budget to observe

¹ The annexed figures, taken from official returns, show the commercial position of Egypt:—

	Population.	Imports. millions £	Exports. millions £
Belgium	5,336,000	53	44
Denmark	1,940,000	12½	9½
Holland	3,865,000	53	41
Norway and Sweden	6,300,000	23½	18½
Egypt	5,500,000	5½	12½

more than ordinary caution, and to abstain from overtaxing crops, the natural sources of revenue.

It must not be imagined that the European Controllers were able without friction to carry out all these projected reforms, although they had succeeded in framing a budget which, by lightening the burden on the public, materially added to the popularity of the new Khedive and his Cabinet. The holders of the Unified Debt, in whose favour specific sources of revenue had been set aside; the creditors of the Domain Lands, who looked to the Moukabalah for payment, were amongst the chief opponents of the new plan; and, at one time, it seemed as if the Government was about to give way to the Unified Bondholders. The Controllers and Commissioners of the Public Debt, however, remained firm, and on February 24 the President of the Council of Ministers addressed to the Commissioners a formal surrender of the principal points in dispute. The Customs receipts were to be paid into the public Treasury, though certain other revenues recently diverted from the service of the Funded Debt were necessarily for a time retained. In the President's letter reference was made to the goodwill with which the recommendations of the once famous European Commission of Inquiry had been carried out; the personal tax and many smaller imposts were abolished, the salt-tax was reformed, the Uchowry land-tax increased, and forced labour placed under control. The Khedive, the letter went on to show, had already paid more than a million and a half of his father's debts towards the mortgage creditors; and was ready to come to terms with the holders of the floating debt. "But," said the President of the Council, "we are stopped by the international principle which prevents Egypt from making her own laws and decrees without the consent of fourteen Powers. We are further delayed by Messrs. Rothschild, who refuse to pay over the residue of their loan unless their lands are declared free from taxation. The Government is also attacked by holders of the Funded Debt for the arrears of the coupons, amounting to 1,700,000*l.*, which everybody knows the country could not pay. If these claims are admitted, the number of unpaid judgments will be greatly increased. Even if Messrs. Rothschild pay the money which was obtained by the sacrifice of the Viceregal lands, one of the fourteen Powers can stop the Government from freely using it, as was done lately when the arrears of tribute and the pensioners were proposed to be settled, and Greece would not allow it as long as any judgments remain unpaid. In short, Egypt contains all the elements of a durable prosperity. The Government has commenced reforms which will enable that prosperity to develop; the most perfect harmony exists between the Controllers and the Ministers. But all these elements of prosperity are paralysed by the check imposed on our legislative powers by the principle of internationality. A Government cannot live unless it can make laws. Either, therefore, the Egyptian Government must be allowed

to make its own laws, or the Powers must agree to make them with it. Egypt is ready to accept either of these solutions. But long negotiations will imperil the vital interests of the creditors as well as the country. If the Government did not know that an international commission was not being discussed by the Powers, a settlement would be at once offered to the creditors."

The next step in the financial regeneration of the country was the appointment of a so-called "Commission of Liquidation" with extensive powers. This international body composed of seven members was, in truth, a High Court of Bankruptcy charged with winding up the embarrassed estate of the Egyptian Government. England and France were represented by two Commissioners each; Germany, Austria, and Italy by one each; the nine other European Powers leaving their interest in their colleagues' hands. The Khedive's Decree appointing the Commission was issued on April 4, and after recapitulating the causes for its nomination, and the promised adhesion of the Powers to its decisions, it defined its duties as follows:—

"Art. 1. After having examined the whole financial situation, and having heard the interested parties, this Commission shall prepare, on the basis of the conclusions of the superior Commission of Inquiry, and without any modification of the terms of the Domain Loan, a law regulating the relations of the Government, as well as the Daira Sanieh and the Daira Khassa, with their creditors, and the manner in which the liquidation of the non-consolidated debt ought to be carried out.

"Art. 2. The Commission shall ascertain the resources which can be placed at the disposal of the Consolidated and non-Consolidated Debt, but it shall, in concert with the Council of Ministers, provide for the free disposal by the Government of such sums as are indispensable to the proper and regular working of the public services.

"Art. 3. The Controllers-General shall furnish the Commission on request with all documents and supplementary explanations which may aid in the accomplishment of its task.

"Art. 4. The Commission shall have the right, in conjunction with the Controllers-General, to superintend the execution of the rules it lays down, and its powers may be prolonged for this purpose for a period not exceeding three months after the publication of the decree of liquidation. After this delay the Commission shall in any case cease to exist.

"Art. 5. The law prepared by the Commission shall receive our sanction and be published by us. From the date of its publication this law shall be binding and beyond appeal, notwithstanding the dispositions of the judicial treaties and the codes of the Mixed Tribunals.

"MEHEMET TEWFIK, Khedive.

"RIAZ, President of the Council of Ministers."

On July 17 the report of the Committee was presented to the Khedive and received approval. On it a law was founded and forth-

with promulgated, consisting of ninety-nine articles and divided into five sections, dealing respectively with the Unified or Consolidated Debt, the Daira Sanieh, the Floating Debt, the Moukabalah, and the general provisions.

(1) The privileges of the Railway Preference Loan, as fixed by the Goschen-Joubert decree of November 18, 1876, were maintained; and a further issue of 5,744,000*l.* authorised. The interest of this stock, which was to be issued gradually according to the requirements of the stock, would, like the already existing Privileged Railway Loan (amounting to 16,900,000*l.*), be secured on the railway and telegraph revenue, and would be a first charge on the other revenues set apart for the service of the Unified Debt and revenue of the harbour of Alexandria.

(2) The interest on the Unified Debt was maintained at 4 per cent., to be paid from the revenue specially set apart for the service of that debt, viz., the Customs receipts and the revenue of the provinces of Menowfich, Gabrieh, Behera, and Seont. The interest on the Unified Debt and the extra stock required to be created for the conversion of small loans absorbed annually 2,308,537*l.*, and any receipts of revenue in excess of this sum were ordered to be applied to buying up the stock in the open market. At the same time the normal expenditure of the Egyptian Government was fixed at 4,898,000*l.*, which sum was to cover the tribute payable to the Porte, the interest due to Great Britain on the Suez Canal Shares, the interest on the Daira Khassa, and a compensation of 150,000*l.* for the Moukabalists, *i.e.* landlords who had suffered by the abolition of the Moukabalah.

(3) The property of the Daira Sanieh being declared to belong to the State, the interest on the Daira loan to the extent of 4 per cent. was to be guaranteed by the Government, whilst the remaining 1 per cent. would be contingent on the revenue of the estates. At the end of every year, should the state of the revenue permit it, supplementary interest, not exceeding 1 per cent. and not less than $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent., would be paid. The Daira Sanieh would receive 450,000*l.* out of the liquidation funds in consideration of the sums paid for the Egyptian Government and the prejudice caused by the withdrawal of the guarantee on the Khedive's civil list. This, after payment of all taxes for the present and previous year, would give a working balance and form the nucleus of a reserve fund, which would be created out of the surplus after paying 5 per cent. interest. The reserve fund, fixed at 350,000*l.*, would serve to complete the coupon of the Daira loan. Should the Egyptian Government fail to meet its guarantees power was given the Daira to withhold the amount out of the taxes.

(4.) The Floating Debt was divided into a preference and deferred stock. Holders would receive 30 per cent. in cash and 70 per cent. in Preference stock at par, no reduction being made in the capital, which carried the interest to which the holders were legally entitled on April 15. 650,000*l.* was reserved to meet the

claims pending before the International Tribunals, and a loan to that amount on the lands belonging to the Egyptian Government is authorised. Certain debts were paid in full in cash, namely, the mortgages on the Domain lands prior to the Rothschild mortgage, all the arrears of salaries and pensions, the arrears of the Tribute, and the sums due to the orphans' fund, diverted by the ex-Khedive, Ismail Pasha. Certain special compromises with particular creditors, such as the Alexandria Harbour contractors, and Messrs. Remington, were also ratified by the International Committee of Liquidation. A sum of 225,000*l.* was to be set apart for the payment of the debts contracted by the family of the ex-Khedive, and 129,000*l.* for the arrears of their allowances in the previous year. The International Committee of Liquidation confirmed the Khedivial decree reducing Halim Pasha's allowance to 15,000*l.*, but declined to make this annuity inalienable. 150,000*l.* was provided to meet the bills which his Highness would be entitled to discount on January 11, 1882, and he would further be entitled to any family successions falling to his lot. The Committee of Liquidation also sanctioned the settlement between the Egyptian Government and the heirs of the late Mouffetish. No one would be entitled to sue the Egyptian Government for prior claims unless a recognised creditor of the State, the amount of whose claims may be contested by the Egyptian Government. Any balance remaining at the conclusion of the liquidation would go to the sinking fund of the Unified Debt, and an annual account of the liquidation operations would be published until their completion.

The proposals of the Committee and their ratification by the Khedive and his Ministers gave general satisfaction to the creditors of Egypt, for which country under the new *régime* a hopeful future seemed at length to have dawned. The fellaheen, or native cultivators, though still subjected to conscription, were no longer taken in shoals to swell a useless army, or employed upon useless work, although forced labour remained legal; the land tax, though heavy, was collected with comparative fairness, and even labourers were able, thanks to two good harvests in succession, to put aside some savings. The danger which threatened the peace and prosperity of the country arose from without, not from within—the delicate relations with Turkey, the threats of Abyssinia, and the responsibilities undertaken in Central Africa. To these might fairly be added those which at any moment might arise from any misunderstanding between the Governments of France and Great Britain, in the paramount importance of whose interest in Egyptian affairs the other European Governments had acquiesced. Until the close of the year the harmonious action of the two countries was unbroken, and the material progress of Egypt was month by month more marked. Mr. Malet, the British Agent and Consul-General, having called upon the various members of the consular body in Egypt to furnish him with reports as to the working of the new administrative changes, was able to write as follows:—

"It leads one to hope that the condition of the fellah is at last permanently changed for the better, and that the misrule and oppression to which he had been subject for centuries has passed away for good. It is difficult to over-estimate the change which must have occurred if, as Mr. Cookson states, the use of the whip in the collection of taxes has virtually become extinct. When Riaz Pacha issued instructions to the authorities that the whip was no longer to be resorted to as a means of coercion, it was generally said that his humanity had got the better of his common sense; that the abolition of the whip was a measure which would only be possible when the native Courts of Justice were properly constituted, when there would be legal means to compel the fellah to pay what he owed. It was asserted that till that time came the fellah, who knew no coercive power but the whip, would continue his traditional practice of refusing to pay his taxes, and would carry it out triumphantly if the whip were abolished. The result shows that Riaz Pacha was right, and that the traditional opinion of the fellah was wrong. He has paid his taxes with alacrity, and, according to Mr. Cookson, is getting into the habit of making preparations for the periodical calls upon him. This last point is also one which is in the highest degree promising. Previously the fellah had no encouragement to do more than earn enough to live. He knew that if he saved, his savings would be taken from him. The amounts which he was called upon to pay, and the period at which they would be exacted, were alike undefined. He only knew that if he had more than he required to keep body and soul together, the tax-gatherer appeared, and he was beaten till he gave it up.

"The regulations of the Government with regard to 'corvée,' or forced labour, appear to have had a less satisfactory result than was hoped for, not that the regulations are not in themselves good, but it has not been possible as yet to ensure their general execution. Instances have occurred of persons paying the exemption fee, and yet being compelled to work, of the rich paying the exemption fee for those on their estates, and those outside being forced to give their labour, whether they could pay or not. The difficulties which have attended the commencement of the change will in time be overcome, and it is to be hoped that within a year the system will be brought into proper working order.

"I observe that the reports from Upper Egypt complain of the regulation which compels payment of taxes in money instead of in kind. There is no doubt that payment in kind led to great abuse, and that the fellah was victimised by the system. When the change was made, a portion of the Ministry urged that the option of paying in money or in produce should be given, but the majority overruled the proposal, on the ground that if both modes of collection were maintained, it would be necessary to keep two categories of collectors; that the collectors of produce were a class whose method of dealing with the fellah was notoriously unjust,

that the principal object of making the change was to get rid of this class, and that it was better to make money payment absolute, even at the risk of the inconvenience which must at first be caused by it.

There is a great deal still to be done before it can be said that Egypt is well governed, but the result of the last six months gives good hope for the future.

Mr. Charles A. Cookson, the Consul at Alexandria, added the following memorandum, founded on reports he received from trustworthy sources:—

“The general condition of the agricultural population of Egypt has considerably improved during the last year. Much of this improvement is, no doubt, the effect of the abundant crops of cotton and cereals, but the legal and regular manner in which the taxes have been collected during the last two quarters has already produced an increase of confidence which has had the best effects. The peasant was furnished at the beginning of the year 1880 with a form, in which was detailed all the taxation which he would have to meet for the ensuing twelve months, and nothing more than this appears to have been exacted. The land taxes are now collected with regularity, and in instalments suited to the convenience of the taxpayer, the largest payments being taken at the seasons when the crops come to market. No forced loans appear to have been collected, and the use of the whip in the collection of taxes has virtually become extinct. The new regulations as to ‘*corvée*’ appear not to have been yet settled, but the forced labour formerly employed on the *Daïras* no longer exists, as the several *Daïras* and Domain estates now pay their labourers regularly. There has been no recruiting during the last year, but soldiers on furlough only have been called up.

“The flagrant injustice which often existed in the distribution of water for irrigation appears to have been very much diminished. The effect of these considerable reforms has made itself felt in a reduction of the rate of interest on advances made to the cultivator. Where 24 per cent. per annum was required by the lender on good mortgage security, 12 per cent. is now readily accepted, and a proportionate reduction on inferior security. Better terms even can be obtained from the *Crédit Foncier* lately established, but the small cultivators generally prefer to pay the somewhat higher rate and deal with the merchants, who are not bound by the necessarily strict rules of large public banks. The peasants, too, are learning the advantages of regularity of payment, and are getting into the habit of making preparations for the periodical calls upon them, and thus the cases of execution and sale through the tribunals may be expected to be much less frequent. Another good sign is that the land has already risen considerably, in some districts even as much as 50 per cent., in value. Altogether the effect of the reforms which have been introduced by the new Administration

appears to be even greater and more rapid than was predicted or expected by those who advocated or introduced them."

Mr. C. Spencer Carr, writing from Birkel-es-Sab on May 15, states that during the past twelve months the value of land has risen greatly, in many districts as much as 100 per cent., and even at such prices there are few sellers. He adds:—

"The taxes are now demanded and paid regularly, one-twelfth of the yearly tax being collected each month, illegal demands are not now made, and any person paying taxes in advance does so without compulsion, and orders are issued by the Mudirs to the tax-collectors, instructing them to treat the rich and poor alike; under this system of monthly payments the taxes seem to be collected with comparative ease, and I do not hear of much compulsion being now resorted to. I have not heard this season of any cultivators selling grain at a sacrifice in anticipation of the crop, and as they can now easily obtain cash advances at from 1 per cent. to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per month interest, it is probable that we have heard the last of that crying evil. Large landowners requiring cash can now obtain advances at long dates of repayment on most favourable terms—I believe as low as 8 per cent. and even 7 per cent. per annum interest. General satisfaction is expressed at the arrangements made for irrigation, and I understand the Government are contemplating considerable improvements in districts where the supply of water is uncertain or inadequate to the demand, or where waste lands are to be reclaimed."

Mr. Félice, writing to Vice-Consul Borg, from Zagazig on April 16, reports:—

"The cotton crop of this year has been larger than last year's. The quantity of cotton ginned in my district, Minet-el-Gamh and the domains included, amounts to 408,000 cantars, while there remain about 10,000 cantars of cotton unsold. Last year's crop yielded 216,000 cantars, and this considerable difference in favour of the growers has greatly improved their financial condition. The moderation that characterises the just taxes claimed by the authorities and the abolition of past oppressions have lost to usurers the high rates of 3 to 8 per cent. per month which they made the fellaheen pay, and the enormous profits they realised by purchasing cotton, wheat, beans, &c., at half-price. According to information I receive, five twenty-fourths of the 'mâl' (land-tax proper) have been collected till now, so that the fellaheen find themselves in an easy and tranquil condition, such as they do not remember to have enjoyed for many years past. The corn plants thus far look very satisfactory, but it would be premature to say anything regarding the prospects of the harvest, as it is subject to the hot winds, 'hamseen,' which may cause serious injury—the next month or six weeks will show."

Mustapha Aga Ayâd, the British Consular Agent at Luxor, reports as follows:—

"The land taxes are now levied according to Government Circulars, by instalments fixed with due regard to the harvest. Four such instalments have been paid this year, and I am told the next call will be for five kirâts. The recovery of the said instalments has been easily effected and without oppression, as it took place during the harvest of maize, barley, beans, and lentils. With regard to the 'corvée,' the men and camels now at work in the shifliks are well remunerated, and many of them of their own free will offer themselves for service. With regard to the works, the men now employed are simply for public works which are of utility to the villages in their neighbourhood. The natives are well pleased with the new reforms, and also with the reduction of taxes and octroi duties, and with their being condoned the arrears of taxes to the end of 1875."

Sayed Hussein, the British Consular Agent at Keneh, observes:—

"Since the accession to the throne of the new Khedive the Local Government have adopted measures for the welfare of the country and its population. Several decrees have been sent to the Government officials, abolishing the Moukabalah, the personal duties, the octroi duties, and other items that were levied in the villages, the purchase of salt has been made optional, the poll-tax levied upon artisans reduced to three-fourths and condoned to the poor; a regular system adopted for the recovery in the present year of land taxes, to be paid gradually and by instalments—namely, for January and March, 1880, one kirât each; for April, two kirâts; for May, five kirâts; for June, six kirâts; for July, five kirâts; for August, two kirâts; and for September and December, one kirât each; cash payments being required, and no wheat accepted as heretofore. If the Government would accept wheat in lieu of money for taxes, it would render the settlement of same more easy for the natives."

The results of the year showed that these forecasts had been in no sense too sanguine. The returns of the Commissioners of the Public Debt proved that the mortgaged revenue was quite sufficient to meet the claims thrown upon it. The amount encashed on December 31 was certified to be 700,000*l.* for the Unified Debt, and 260,000*l.* for the Privileged Debt; in addition to the payment of the various coupons as they had become due during the year, the redemption of about a quarter of a million of the debt by purchasers in the open market, and the extinction of five millions of the floating debt.

The International Judicial Tribunal had originally been an attempt on the part of Ismail Pasha to substitute for the independent Consular Courts, a procedure which should remove some of the grave scandals to which the latter had unintentionally given rise. The various judges had in the first instance been appointed for a term of years, which came to an end in the course of 1880. A rising feeling of "Egypt for the Egyptians" had at one time led to a strong opposition to the renewal of the International Tribunal. European pressure, however, ultimately forced

the Khedive and the Government to have resort to a Commission of Inquiry, and under cover of its recommendations the International Tribunals, which had done their work well and with as little friction as possible, were renewed for a further term.

From the sudden return of Colonel Gordon from Central Africa at the commencement of the year, people at once guessed that his mission had proved a failure. His health, after many years of exposure, was no longer strong enough to support him through the trials which necessarily awaited any commander purely intent upon suppressing an old national institution like domestic slavery, which though officially condemned was meanwhile socially supported. Gordon had broken up more than one horde of native slave-dealers in Central Africa, but there were always fresh traders ready to renew, and rich enough to defend by force, the nefarious traffic.

In the conduct of the negotiations with King John of Abyssinia Colonel Gordon had been more successful, detecting almost at a glance that for many years to come that country would never be a serious rival to Egyptian influence in the Soudan. Central Africa—King John's position, far from being one of menace to Egypt—was itself threatened by powerful neighbours. On the east, Menelek, King of Shoa, and on the south, Rasadab, were only waiting a propitious moment to revolt from his authority, whilst divers feudal chiefs were looking with no less eagerness for the signal for revenge.

The Governor-Generalship of the Soudan, which had been held by Colonel Gordon, was not continued in its original form, the Khedive dividing the duties amongst a number of Egyptian Pashas, to one of whom, Gessi Pasha, was assigned the government of the Upper Hill District, to another Massowah and the Red Sea coast, and to a third Berbera, Zeyla, and the Hara District. The first-mentioned was at the outset most successful. With less than 3,000 men he defeated Saleima, the leader of over 10,000 well-armed gelabba—Arab slave-dealers—on the Gazelle river, who supplied the slave markets of Egypt and Turkey. After routing Saleima completely, he pursued the remnant of his forces, finally capturing the leaders of the slave-dealing party, their mitrailleuses and cannons, and liberating many thousands of slaves whom they had taken prisoners. It is sad to have to record that on his return from the interior, Gessi's army was exposed to the most frightful hardships, all transport by water rendered impossible by the condition of the river, which had been converted into impenetrable masses by the rapid growth of weeds. Through this the army had to cut a passage for themselves and boats, but by far the greater number succumbed to the combined effects of exertion, privation, and disease.

The occupation of the Bay of Assab, on the Red Sea, by Italy, on the ground of its cession to that country by the local tribes, gave rise to diplomatic correspondence between the Egyptian, British,

and Italian Cabinets. The first-named refused to recognise the power of any savage tribes to give territory, which, as forming part of the littoral of the Red Sea, north of Cape Guardafui, she claimed as her own; and which, under an agreement made with England in 1877, she was unable to transfer without the consent of that Power. The matter was for the time amicably arranged, for although the Italian Government retained a depôt in the Bay of Assab as a coaling station for its line of steamers, it was agreed that it did so with the consent of the Egyptian Government, whose suzerain rights were to be fully recognised.

The gold mines of Midian, rediscovered by Captain Burton, were in the first instance reported to be of such considerable value, that their working with European capital was proposed. Subsequent investigations, however, showed that the gold-producing districts of the Gulf of Akaba had for centuries attracted adventurers from different countries, and doubts were felt as to whether the outlay of additional capital would in the end prove remunerative.

II. SOUTH AFRICA.

The year 1880 opened in the Transvaal amid the rumours and controversies to which the great mass meeting of December 1879 had given rise. Thousands of Boers had then met at Wonderfontein, fairly representing, according to some credible reports, though not according to the official estimate, the fighting force of the people. They had solemnly renewed their protest against annexation, and had elected a committee and foremen to give effect to their "determinations." As these were embodied in the Manifesto issued, when a year later the Boers met in arms and proclaimed the Republic, it is as well here briefly to note what they were. As the Queen's Government in England, deceived by the reports of the local officials, refused to hear their representations, the time for memorials was past. The people declared that the Government of the South African Republic should resume its functions, and that the Volksraad should be convened as soon as possible. The Volksraad, however, was to take steps to render a peaceful solution possible. The people expected from it a proclamation declaring—1, that the rights of the inhabitants should be under the protection of the laws of the country; 2, that the English Government should be allowed to nominate a consul to look after British interests; 3, that the necessary expenditure lawfully incurred during the interregnum should be confirmed; 4, that differences as to boundaries with natives should be submitted to arbitration, and that as regards native policy generally the Government should be ready to accept general principles, to be settled in conference with the other colonies and States of South Africa; 5, that it should be prepared to confederate with the other colonies and States of South Africa. The people promised to be forgiving to all burghers who, through circumstances, had been

brought temporarily to abandon their cause, but they could not promise to extend this forgiveness to those who came forward as open enemies, and continued to deceive the English by false representations. Pending the restoration of the Republic they would not, except under coercion, appear in the law courts, and they called on the temporary Government and its officials to cease their "annoyances." They agreed to have no dealings with the foreign adventurers who opposed themselves to the lawful people of the Republic, and afforded supplies to the troops and the Government; and they further declared that if, till the following April, the Government remained obstinate, they would prevent all use of the English language, and shun all contact with Englishmen. While the committee bound itself to give effect to these determinations, the people promised, man for man, to co-operate and defend their Government, even to the death. It was agreed to hold another meeting in the April following. The conditions by which the Boers in these determinations, as in the Proclamation a year after, offered to allow their independence to be limited, ought to be kept carefully in mind. They were intended obviously to meet the objections generally urged against the restoration of the Republic. If, said the advocates of English rule, you allow the old *régime* to revive, with it the old dangers will revive which compelled us to extinguish it. Slavery, thinly disguised as apprenticeship of orphans, will be an institution. There will be attacks on native tribes to get "black ivory." Natives will retaliate. The Boers, intolerant by nature of any central control, will refuse to obey the laws their own Volksraad passes, or to pay the taxes it decrees, or to meet for the personal service in war which it requires. You will have another Cetewayo and another Sakakuni chasing them over the veldt, and you will once again find your own frontier threatened by the troubles which Boer cruelty and Boer misrule have provoked. To meet these objections the people agreed to adopt a native policy in common with other States, and to enter into a confederation. The British party argued that it was easy for mass meetings to promise, but that the people would certainly not be obedient to the Volksraad, on which the responsibility of giving effect to the promises would rest. It may, indeed, be taken as a fact not seriously questioned in the controversy, that the last Volksraad before annexation made no real effort to meet the difficulties which threatened the State, and left the President powerless to collect the taxes to provide for the debts and necessary outlay. The President, Mr. Burgers, had himself told them that the condition of things was hopeless, and that external intervention could alone save them. All these matters the English party insisted on, while the Boers pointed to the formal protest made in 1877 against the annexation. The English answered that it was purely formal; that the "people" were glad enough to be saved, even at the cost of independence; and that only now when the British had, at their own

cost, without any help from them, conquered Cetewayo and Sakakuni, and paid their debts, were they willing and anxious to claim their independence again as a means of escape from the restraints of orderly government. The Boers, on the other hand, said they had not resisted because they hoped for a peaceful solution from the awakened sense of justice of the English. They pointed to their successive missions of protest, and attributed their inaction during the Zulu War to their unwillingness to benefit by the practical co-operation of savages. As to Sakakuni and Cetewayo, they said that had they been left alone they would finally have given a good account of both. Indeed, Sakakuni, they asserted, had acknowledged their authority.

At this time, as later, there was much difference of opinion as to the genuineness of the demand for the restoration of independence. The total white population of the province was estimated at from 40,000 to 50,000. Of these 5,000, including the majority of the townspeople, traders, miners, &c., were English, or other foreigners who had no Dutch predilections. Of the Boers themselves many, and among these some of the largest proprietors, were open advocates of British rule. There still remained say five-sixths of the people whose wishes the determinations of the mass meetings professed to represent. These were the "true people" of the Transvaal, the men, or the sons of the men, who had originally "trekked" there to escape from English rule in Cape Colony or Natal. The question was whether all these were at heart averse to the new *régime*, or were merely coerced into demonstrations of protest by a turbulent minority of irreconcilables. All the English administrators, Sir Bartle Frere, Sir Garnet Wolseley, and Sir Owen Lanyon, alleged that in private conversation many of the persons who took part in the demonstrations explained that personally they would see the withdrawal of British rule with great regret, but that they dared not withstand the pressure of the small active band of anti-English agitators. The condition of Ireland some months later was held to be analogous to that of the Transvaal—the organised disaffection of a few imposing its will on a peaceably disposed majority. On the other hand, the responsible leaders of the people, Kruger, Joubert, and others, alleged that they had great difficulty in restraining the people from open revolt. There can be no doubt that they took pains to explain the serious results resort to force might entail, and that to the last they counselled a peaceable policy of passive resistance. But it must be explained that the men who are said to have coerced the people were—not men like Kruger—but the local foremen. Many of these had been notorious for their defiant disregard of the authority of their own Government, and of the Courts it had established, and there is the clearest evidence that, whether the people generally were persuaded or coerced, the demonstrations and the rising were due in great measure to that peculiar exercise of public opinion which men of this kind have it in their power to manipulate.

"The patriots," they would say, "have to be forced into being true to their own convictions, otherwise they will subordinate the common good each to his own private convenience." However this may be, there can be no doubt that the mass of the farmers, that is to say the Boers, to whom in vast tracts the land of the country had been assigned, were in the beginning of 1879 pledged not to recognise the English rule, and to restore their own Republic at the earliest opportunity.

At this time the speeches in which Mr. Gladstone and other members of the English Opposition condemned the annexation, led many sympathisers of the Boers in South Africa to hope that if the result of the elections was to put the Liberals in office, the Act would be reversed. Sir Garnet Wolseley, in a speech at Pretoria, found it necessary, in the most emphatic way, to declare that no political change in England would lead to the withdrawal of the British rule. The irreconcilable attitude of the Boers, at the same time, made it impossible to grant that representative form of government under which it had been hoped they would enjoy the full measure of local self-government, promised at the time of annexation.

The resolutions passed at Wonderfontein having been formally transmitted to the Government at Pretoria, the Administration decided to proceed against Bok, as Secretary, and Pretorius, as President of the Government thus illegally constituted, on charges of sedition. Their arrest gave rise to renewed agitation; but they were never brought to trial. In fact, it was believed that matters were likely to be amicably arranged between the leaders of the people and the English officials. Under the new scheme of administration there was to be an Executive Council, consisting of officials and some nominated non-official members, and a Legislative Assembly, consisting of the Executive Council and some nominated non-official members. It was hoped that Kruger and Pretorius would accept seats in the Council, but all overtures and even personal conferences failed to induce them to occupy a position in which they could have made the feelings of the people known. Other Boers, however, of great influence accepted the posts offered them by Government, and with two other old residents of the Transvaal continued to the last to assist Government with loyal support and advice. The first duty of the Assembly was to prepare a body of laws. These were for the most part taken over *en bloc* from the statute-books of the neighbouring colonies. The natives (who number in the Transvaal altogether 450,000, and are particularly numerous in the northern districts) were subjected to a hut tax, and for the first time in the history of the province this was paid and paid willingly. Something was done too to improve jails, to provide hospitals, and to maintain an efficient police. But much more admittedly remained to be done, and the construction of a railway to Delagoa Bay, as well as the improvement of the internal communications, were recognised as works of pressing im-

portance. In the middle of the year Sir Owen Lanyon—who was now Administrator—made a tour in the north, and was everywhere received with cordial addresses of welcome. The natives especially professed their appreciation of the blessings of the English rule.

Meanwhile agitation among the Boers seemed to have subsided. There was a meeting of foremen in February, but the meeting arranged for April was postponed *sine die*. Just before the English elections an address—evidently the work of some literary friend of the Boers—was sent to Mr. Gladstone, which in substance made him the champion of their cause.

But any hopes they cherished were doomed to disappointment. "In maintaining," said the Queen's Speech, "my supremacy over the Transvaal, with its diversified population, I desire both to make provision for the security of the indigenous races, and to extend to the European settlers institutions based on large and liberal principles of self-government." "The main fact," said Mr. Gladstone in the debate, "which met us, was the existence of a large native population, to whom, by the establishment of the Queen's supremacy, we hold ourselves to have given a pledge." "It was," said Lord Kimberley, the new Secretary of State, "impossible to say what calamities our receding might not cause to the native population. It would be lamentable if after the expenditure of so much blood and treasure there should be a recurrence of internecine struggles."

As soon as news of the resolve of the Ministry reached the Cape, the Boer representatives sent a telegram to one of their London friends expressing their "bitter disappointment." But at the time there was no public demonstration. A few of the men whose names are identified with the cause of the Boer independence busied themselves in Cape Colony in developing public feeling, and they claimed subsequently that to their efforts was due the failure of the project of Confederation, the realisation of which they declared would be fatal to their hopes.

The taxes decreed by the Assembly were levied on all. Sir Owen Lanyon alleged in his despatches that as a rule they were paid willingly, and that in some cases where, under the coercion of the more violent, payment was refused, the persons liable came privately and paid. But it is beyond question that a very great number—whether of their own motion or under constraint of opinion—wished in paying to have it distinctly understood that they paid under protest. By October, so high had feeling run, that certain burghers published in a Pretoria newspaper (*De Volkstern*), which had all along been the organ of the disaffection, a notice declaring that henceforth they would pay taxes to no authority except their own duly constituted Volksraad. About this time, too, there was a debate in the Assembly on a motion made by Mr. White, an Englishman, member for Pretoria, and proprietor of the newspaper which had been the chief organ of the English party. Mr. White argued that the promises of internal improve-

ments had not been fulfilled, and demanded as a remedy for the shortcomings of English rule, not the reversal of annexation, but the grant of representative institutions. Mr. White was alone in his complaints. All the other non-official members considered that all that could be done in the time had been done. Under every form of government, they alleged, the Boers had been turbulent and discontented. Sir Owen Lanyon pointed out that it was the earnest desire of Government to grant the representative government claimed, and that the attitude of the Boers alone had rendered it impracticable. It was decided to prosecute the editor of *De Volkstern*, not only for the appearance of the seditious notices, but for incendiary articles previously published. But meanwhile the trouble which had for some time been growing at Potchefstroom assumed the most serious proportions. Bezuidenhout, a Boer of that district, had refused to pay the amount of taxes claimed from him. There was an enquiry before the Landrost, or Magistrate, the result of which was that only half the amount claimed was found to be due. Bezuidenhout offered to pay the amount due to the Republican Government as soon as it was re-established. He did not, at any rate, pay to the British authorities. This is the account furnished, by a person present at the trial, to the *Transvaal Argus*. We have no definite statement of the facts from the Boer side, though the leaders have spoken as if Bezuidenhout had been *illegally* as well as harshly treated, and a waggon belonging to him was accordingly seized in execution. While the Landrost's officer was attempting to sell the waggon by auction, a number of armed Boers rode in, assaulted him, and took away the property by force. This was in the beginning of November. But before this it had been agreed that there should be another great mass meeting in January, to decide what steps should be taken to obtain a settlement, and it was understood generally that if pacific means failed there should be a resort to force.

When news of the forcible resistance to the sale at Potchefstroom reached the authorities at Pretoria, it was decided that the authority of the law must be upheld, by force if necessary. Major Clarke was sent to the place to act for a time as Landrost. Meanwhile there were great gatherings of Boers in various parts of the district, and so serious was the situation believed to be that troops (about 300 men in all) were sent to Potchefstroom. The appearance of the military still further excited the people. Mr. Kruger came from Pretoria to use his influence, he said, for peace. The Colonial Secretary, Mr. Hudson, also came from Pretoria and went to confer with Mr. Kruger. The latter complained that though the people were a protesting people, and though they intended to meet to see whether an amicable settlement was not possible, they were harassed with demands for taxes and threatened with military force. He seemed to think that receipts for taxes ought to specify distinctly that they were paid under protest. Mr.

Hudson explained that no Government could be expected to do anything of the kind, or to consent to see its authority defied. It had before this been arranged that the mass meeting which it had been intended to hold in January should be held on December 8 instead, to consider the existing situation. In anticipation, Sir Owen Lanyon published a proclamation drawing attention to the penalties which persons attending seditious meetings, or inciting to seditious acts, incurred. Government, it was said, would rigidly require the payment of all lawful taxes, and would punish according to law all persons setting its authority at defiance.

The great meeting was deferred to give time to Boers from the more distant regions to attend, and to make all necessary preparations for the sequel. On December 13 it was held at Paardekraag, a place between Pretoria and Potchefstroom. After two days' debate, not only did the people refuse to surrender the persons implicated in the Bezuidenhout affair, but they solemnly declared the restoration of the Republic. On the 15th they moved in a mass to Heidelberg—a village on the road from Natal to Pretoria—and there the flag of the Republic was hoisted on the 16th, Dingana's Day. The proclamation issued was, in fact, a repetition of the "determinations" arrived at a year before, of which we have already given a full account. It reviewed, moreover, the whole history of the relations of the Republic with the British Government; contended that the clause of the Sand River Convention of 1852 (by which the British Government recognised their independence), forbidding slavery, had never been infringed, and explained why they had tolerated so long the presence of the "Government *pro tem.*" They had not taken action on the resolutions of 1879, it explained, because the first object was to prevent the success of the confederation project at the Cape, the success of which would have been fatal to their interests. They had "observed peace," and decreed to pay "the taxes under force," but "indescribable was their anger to find that wilfully the truth was obscured by the Government *pro tem.*," who had "thought well to write to England that the people were satisfied and paid their taxes." (This was so. Sir Owen Lanyon had referred to the more general willingness to pay taxes as a reassuring sign, and the fact was commented on by speakers in the debate in the English Parliament in September, and by Sir G. Colley in his speech at the opening of the Natal Council.)

The reconstituted Volksraad appointed Messrs. Pretorius, Joubert and Kruger to be a triumvirate to carry on the Provisional Government. Kruger was Vice-President, and Joubert Commander-in-Chief. Bok was Secretary. The influence of disaffected Irishmen was fairly discernible in Transvaal agitation before this, and Mr. Aylward, who had been concerned in the Fenian conspiracy, shot at as an informer, and helped out of Ireland by a grant from the Secret Service Fund, had come to South Africa, fought for the Boers in their old wars with natives, and subse-

quently was editor of the *Natal Witness*, and became Mr. Joubert's Military Secretary.

Of the circumstances under which the first shot was fired, the account given in the Boer manifesto does not quite agree with that of the English officers. It is clear, however, that the aspect of the Boers had for some weeks seemed to the British officials so menacing that they entrenched and otherwise fortified the camp outside the town of Potchefstroom, and also prepared the court-house, the head-quarters of Major Clarke as civil officer, for defence. On December 15 a Boer patrol brought the proclamation of the Republic to be printed at a press in the town. Major Clarke forbade its being printed. On the 16th another Boer patrol rode near the camp. According to the English account, it fired on the soldiers; according to the Boer version, the soldiers fired on it. At any rate, shots were exchanged. Before this (on the 14th) Sir Owen Lanyon had issued a proclamation forbidding armed parties to come within a mile of any town. The Boers themselves admit that after the affair near the camp, their armed bands rode into the town. The little band of fifty men who were with Major Clarke in the court-house fired on them, and the open space called the square was shelled from the camp. But after a spirited defence, the defenders of the court-house had to surrender. Most were released on parole, but Major Clarke and Mr. Raaf—a brave Boer who had made himself obnoxious to his countrymen by his zealous service on behalf of Government—were kept as prisoners. The garrison of the camp declined to surrender, and successfully repelled the attacks of the Boers.

Meanwhile, the Boers at Heidelberg were said to number 8,000, and were probably not fewer than 4,000. A letter was sent to Pretoria to Sir A. Lanyon calling upon him to make over the government peaceably, and giving him forty-eight hours in which to reply. Steps had been taken shortly before for withdrawing to Pretoria some of the troops stationed at other towns. A detachment of 250 men of the 94th was proceeding under orders from Lydenburg to Pretoria. It appears that Colonel Anstruther, who commanded, had been warned that attack was possible. On December 20, as they approached some heights on the road between Middelburg and Pretoria, a Boer rode up to the Colonel, who was riding in advance, and handed him a letter. It set forth that till a reply was received from Sir O. Lanyon, the Republic did not know whether it was at war or not; that, therefore, the troops must remain where they were till an answer was received. Colonel Anstruther said that his orders were to go to Pretoria, and to Pretoria he would go. Before, however, he could form up his men (who straggled along the long line of waggons), a deadly fire was poured from the heights. The officers were almost at once shot down, and in a few minutes, most of the force being disabled, the dying Colonel ordered a surrender. Eighty-six men were buried on the field, and twenty-six died afterwards of their wounds. The

Boers were a party of 250 mounted men who had been despatched from Heidelberg. They lost one killed, and five wounded. This was the first instance in which the English had experience of the silent celerity, the deadly fire, and the marvellous instinct for finding cover, of the Boers they had hitherto despised as mere braggarts. On this occasion, as on others, the wounded were kindly treated, and most of the prisoners were released on parole. Nevertheless, both in Natal and England, many even of their sympathisers regarded the attack as a treacherous surprise. The facts, as we have stated them, are not disputed.

Sir Owen Lanyon's reply to the Boer invitation was a proclamation offering pardon to those rebels who submitted and returned to their homes. The town of Pretoria was abandoned, but the fortified camp near the town was held by the garrison and a large number of loyal residents. Neither here, nor at the other places which forthwith were beleaguered—Potchefstroom, Standerton, or Wakkerstroom—did the Boers obtain any success. The defenders, on the other hand, made some successful sallies.

Sir Owen Lanyon in his despatches accused the Boer agitators of having coerced many unwilling persons into joining their movement, and it is admitted that the local foremen circulated notices that those who were not ready to fight must leave their farms forthwith. He also forwarded the depositions of several natives, who said they had been urged by the Boers not to pay taxes and to join in expelling the English. The Triumvirate repudiated this as a vile calumny, and charged Sir Owen Lanyon with having commenced war without notice and carried it on against all rules of civilised warfare, instancing particularly the bombardment of the exposed town of Potchefstroom. On the other hand, one atrocity is admitted to have been committed by Boers. Two officers who had been released on parole were unable to find the ford of the river. Wandering along its banks they met some Boers who compelled them by threats to go into the stream. While they were struggling across, the Boers fired on them from the banks, killing one. The other, after unpitied hardships in the Free State, managed to toil on to Maritzburg. Mr. Joubert, it is right to add, subsequently expressed his horror at this outrage and did his best to discover the guilty persons.

The time at which the Boers rose was propitious to their cause. The army of occupation had been much reduced by the withdrawal of troops, and there were in the Transvaal at the end of the year only the following:—At Pretoria about 500 men and two guns; at Potchefstroom 100 men and two guns; at Standerton four companies; Wakkerstroom two companies; Rustenburg and Marabastad one company each; Lydenburg fifty men. As to Natal, after reinforcements had been landed in January, there were only 1,300 men available for an advance. At most of the towns in the Transvaal there were volunteers; but some hundreds of mounted men had gone off to the Basuto war.

From the first much sympathy was shown for the Boer cause in the Orange Free State and in Cape Colony, where the Dutch element—kith and kin of the men who had “trekked” some forty years before beyond the Vaal—preponderated. Influential deputations waited on the Administrator at Cape Town while the Boers were still collecting, and after the outbreak, to urge that the Chief Justice of Cape Colony, himself a gentleman of Dutch extraction, should be sent as Commissioner to arrange matters. General meetings of sympathy too were held in all the large towns. Hundreds of Free State Boers were said to have gone to join the insurgents. As communication between Natal and Pretoria was stopped by the Boer force at Heidelberg, the actual facts of the outbreak were not for some weeks made known, and the wildest rumours of Boer atrocities found currency in Natal. There were, of course, no negotiations with the insurgents within the year. Sir G. Colley indeed hoped at first that he could suppress the outbreak with the forces at his disposal, but reinforcements were nevertheless sent from Europe and India.

The year was one of great excitement for Cape Colony. At its close, as we have seen, the old dissonance of feeling between the Dutch and English elements in the population was revived by the conflict in the Transvaal. But before this the relations of the Government with the Basutos had furnished the regular Parliamentary Opposition—especially the section which peculiarly affected zeal for native rights—with material for sustained attack. An Act passed in 1878 by the Cape Parliament had given Government the power of disarming such native tribes under colonial jurisdiction as Government might think necessary. The Opposition contended that it was the intention of Parliament to give Government the power of disarming only tribes with regard to whom immediate danger of revolt was feared. Government, however, interpreted it as authorising general measures of precaution, and in 1879 it had announced that the Act would be applied to the Basutos. At the close of that year Mr. Sprigg had himself visited the country, and told the people and chiefs at the Pitso that though no precipitate action would be taken, yet disarmament would be enforced. The Act was accordingly proclaimed in Basutoland on April 8, 1880. Under its provisions it was illegal to have or carry arms (including not only guns but such weapons as assegais) in Basutoland after a date specified by proclamation. The date originally fixed was May 21; but the Ministry, recognising the necessity of caution and indulgence, subsequently extended the term for the surrender of arms under the Act first to June 21, and afterwards to July 12. As early as January the Chief Magistrate of Basutoland had advised the people to anticipate the proclamation of the Act by voluntarily bringing in their weapons. Some natives who complied were attacked by Masupha, an old chief who headed the party of disobedience.

The grounds on which the Basutos and their friends objected

to disarmament were briefly these. Since 1869, when they voluntarily became British subjects, they had been uniformly peaceful and loyal, and had made a progress in civilisation unparalleled among the African races. When Moirosi, chief of the Quithing district of Basutoland, revolted in 1879, the loyal Basutos had assisted the colonial forces in reducing his stronghold. Basutos too had fought, and fought well, in the Zulu war. The guns which it was sought now to take from them they had earned by labour at the Diamond Fields; indeed, the hope of obtaining guns was the inducement that took them there, and the Colonial Government sanctioned their obtaining the guns. That they would make no use of them injurious to the whites their loyal and peaceful attitude showed. They had fields and villages. Some of them had gone so far as to wear European clothes and to adopt Christianity—the missionaries were their trusted friends and advisers—were men like these likely to be dangerous? Guns, though not necessary to their policy, were necessary to their dignity; it was a point of honour with them to have good weapons, as it was a rich Englishman's to keep a carriage. To take away their cherished guns would be not only a dishonour, but an evidence of undeserved distrust. Nay, the fact that Government treated them thus made them suspect that Government had—they knew not what—ulterior designs against them.

Government, in reply, admitted that the Basutos had prospered wonderfully under English rule—they had indeed waxed fat and kicked. Government had saved them from destruction at the hands of the Free State Boers, and now they refused to comply with the invitation to disarm, as all other tribes under colonial rule had done. The loyal Fingoes on one side of the Orange River had given up their guns; how could the not more loyal Basutos on the other be exempted? By the new understanding with the Home Government the colony assumed the burden of its own defence, and an essential step to defence was the precautionary disarmament of native neighbours. Everyone admitted that the Basutos had no real need of the guns, and it was absurd to argue that national notions of dignity required them to have such playthings when, as the Basutos themselves admitted, they had acquired them only a few years previously. The missionaries, who opposed forcible disarmament, admitted that disarmament *per se* was a good thing—and to men of sense it was clear (Mr. Sprigg argued) that the possession of arms would lead to strife among the Basutos themselves, and possibly to outrage on their unarmed neighbours. Besides, was it quite so clear that the Basutos as a whole were loyal? An experience of twelve years was rather brief to base confident hopes on. Twice, at any rate, during that time the chief magistrate had reported that they seemed affected by a wave of that disloyal feeling which from time to time sweeps spasmodically over the South African races. If they never dreamt of using the guns, why that keen desire of earning them which took the

Basutos to the Diamond Fields? Whatever might be the present feeling of the mass of the people, it was notorious that some of the older chiefs, such as Masupha, and many of the younger ones (who remembered but vaguely the perils from which we had rescued them) viewed with impatience the gradual growth of magisterial authority, and sighed for a restoration of the old power of the chiefs. While the missionaries urged that barbarism would wane before civilisation, the Cape Government argued that armed barbarism would get the better of unarmed industry. As to the active assistance given by Basutos, it was shown that the men who fought in the Zulu war were Basutos settled in Natal where disarmament was enforced, while those who fought against Moirosi had hopes of reward in the shape of confiscated cattle.

The question of disarmament unfortunately did not stand alone. The hut tax had with the consent of the Basutos been doubled the year before, and though the proceeds were devoted purely to local uses, yet the increase had in some degree disturbed the minds of the people. Further, there was the question of the confiscated lands of Moirosi. The Cape Government proposed to throw them open to settlement, for whites and for natives who were not Basutos. The Basutos, on the other hand, urged that they should, like the rest of their country, be reserved for Basutos. Their chief had assigned them, they said, to Moirosi, and that chief having been properly punished for his rebellion, his lands reverted to the Basuto people.

There was, indeed, much controversy as to the constitutional relations between the Basutos and the Cape Parliament. In 1869 Moshesh, the great Basuto chief, reduced to the last extremity by the Boers, gladly accepted the protection of Great Britain, and transferred his sovereign rights to the Queen. But, the advocates of Basutos urged, he did not transfer, for as chief he had it not to transfer, proprietary right in the soil. That belonged to the people. In accordance with Moshesh's wish Basutoland was annexed to Cape Colony, not to Natal. At the time of the cession, it seems to be admitted (though there is no documentary evidence of the fact) Sir Philip Wodehouse promised that Basutoland should remain strictly under the control of the Governor of Cape Colony as High Commissioner, and that the country should be reserved for the Basutos only, all European settlement being prevented. Further, the Basutos are said to have preferred annexation to Cape Colony to annexation to Natal, because in the latter natives were subject to a disarmament law. In 1871 Basutoland was formally annexed to Cape Colony, and in 1872 came the great change, by which responsible government was conferred on Cape Colony. The result of this was to transfer the government of Basutoland from the Governor or High Commissioner, acting directly under the instructions of the Home Government, to the Parliamentary Government of Cape Colony. No special notification of the change was made to the Basutos; whether they

were aware of it is a disputed point. Their application to send representatives to the Parliament certainly seems to suggest that the chiefs, or their advisers at any rate, knew of the change; but there is reason, too, to believe that they did not know all that the change implied. The French missionaries who pleaded for the Basutos in 1880 certainly seemed still to believe that Basutoland was under the patriarchal rule of the Chief Magistrate representing the High Commissioner.

Colonel Griffith had for many years been the Chief Magistrate, and had succeeded in winning the respect and confidence of the people. When the enforcement of disarmament was proposed, he represented to the Ministry that though disarmament was in itself desirable, yet the simultaneous introduction of the measures—disarmament, the opening of Moirosi's lands to settlers, and the doubling of the hut tax—had disquieted the people, and put a heavy strain on their loyalty. "Moral force," he reported, was "played out." The Home Government, we may here say, had enjoined moderation and caution in proceeding with disarmament, and when Lord Kimberley succeeded Sir M. H. Beach he condemned the confiscation of Moirosi's lands. But it was admitted on both sides that while the Cape Government could not claim Imperial help in meeting the consequences of its measures, the Home Government could not directly interfere in the disarmament question. The Sprigg Government, on its part, recognised the need of caution and conciliation. There would, it was announced, be no house-to-house search for arms. The period for bringing them in was extended from time to time. A deputation of the chiefs was received with deference at Cape Town, and it was in contemplation to form a Basuto militia for the legitimate needs of the country, and to return arms on licence to persons recommended by the magistrates. The alternative plan suggested by Letsea—the paramount chief—and the missionaries, was that a heavy tax should be imposed on guns; but Government would not abandon the principle of disarmament.

In June there was a long and heated debate on the subject in the Cape Assembly, on a motion made by Mr. Fuller. It condemned the Government for having arbitrarily committed the country to the policy of disarmament by issuing the proclamation before the opening of Parliament, and having unconstitutionally committed it to expense, unsanctioned by Parliament, by declaring that a price (a liberal price, we ought to remark) would be paid for all the guns brought in. Though the question involved by the motion was thus strictly constitutional, the discussion ranged over the whole merits of the question. The result was a majority for Government of thirty-eight votes to twenty-nine. As to Moirosi's lands, Government promised to do nothing till local inquiries had been made by impartial officials.

During the debate the deputation of Basuto chiefs was still in Cape Town. It accepted the decision of Parliament as the deci-

sion of the Queen, and on its return Letsea advised his people to resign themselves to the inevitable, and bring in their arms. Unfortunately, Letsea was an old man of feeble will, little energy, and still less authority. Masupha, his brother, was sullenly defiant at Thaba Bosigo—the sacred mountain stronghold of the Basutos—the defences of which he was restoring. Some of Letsea's own sons—among them Lerothodi—a young man of violent and determined, if somewhat lethargic, temperament, were against compliance with the demands of the Government. Finally, when Letsea sent some of his own guns in they by force prevented the waggons in which they were from proceeding. Then followed some weeks during which magistrates of each of the districts Leribe, Thaba Bosigo, and Kornet Spruit, reported open demonstrations of disloyalty among the people. Those who were anxious to surrender their arms were deterred by the threats of the violent party, and the few who persisted in sending them in were “eaten up.” Thus the total number of weapons brought in was comparatively slight. In the beginning of August Colonel Griffith urgently recommended that a strong military force should be sent to strengthen the hands of the authorities. The loyal natives, he said, would, if they saw the authorities unable to assist them, be forced to join the insurgents. But the Cape Ministry, unwilling to precipitate a conflict, still urged caution and mere measures of police. There was open indignation among the European traders, who had volunteered to defend the magisterial stations, at what they regarded as the faint-hearted vacillation of Government. But about the middle of August matters seemed to improve. Letsea, with a large following, went to Thaba Bosigo, and it was hoped that he would hold it in our interests. Masupha, however, was already there, with a still larger and more resolute following. The Ministry instructed Letsea to arrest Masupha; but he said that to do this would strain his authority too far, and finally he retired, leaving Masupha master of the stronghold, which he was still fortifying. As a last effort at conciliation, Mr. Sprigg himself visited Basutoland, accompanied by Mr. Orpen, who had for years been noted for his almost extreme advocacy of Basuto rights in the Cape Parliament. The latter had an interview, on September 5, with Letsea, his son Lerothodi, and, indeed, most of the disaffected chiefs, Masupha, however, being absent. Those who had been guilty of acts of violence professed penitence. The answer of Mr. Sprigg to the application they sent was that the offending chiefs should appear in court; should submit to fines to be imposed there; and should make good the actual loss to loyal persons their violence had caused. As to the surrender of guns, a few should be given up by Lerothodi as a token of submission, but the surrender of the rest would not be asked till the pacification of the country was complete. There would then be a liberal grant of licences. It is, perhaps, right to say here, that whatever virtues Basutos have, that of honest and plain speech is not one. Their

figurative and picturesque style is, as a mere matter of rhetoric, very effective, but it is not always easy to see what is really meant; and even when this is clear, what is meant is not always an index to the real mind and intent of the speaker. This seems to have been the case with Lerothodi's professions of penitence. Urged by Mr. Orpen to accept the conditions, he seemed unwilling to do so, but finally said that he would go and talk to Masupha about the matter. He and Mr. Orpen rode off together towards Thaba Bosigo, but on the way Lerothodi put spurs to his horse and was seen no more. While Mr. Sprigg inferred that the objection to disarmament was a mere cloak for generally rebellious impulse, the friends of the Basutos urged that Lerothodi feared treachery.

In August about 500 men of the Cape Mounted Rifles had been brought into the Orange Free State, and were held in readiness to cross into Basutoland. On September 13 Colonel Carrington, with about 200 men, started from the border for Mafeteng.¹ Mr. Barkly, the magistrate at Mafeteng, hearing firing, rode out from Mafeteng, and found Lerothodi, with several hundred Basutos, on the road. Lerothodi, in spite of the efforts of his followers to detain him, rode forward to talk with Mr. Barkly, who, to reassure him, threw away his revolver. The Basuto chief, with profuse salutations, told Mr. Barkly he would not retire unless the Rifles were sent back. Mr. Barkly said this was impossible, but they would not molest him if he did not molest them. Just then the colonial column debouched on the plain. Lerothodi pointed to them, and gesticulating violently, seized his gun. Shaking hands, the two separated. Soon after, Colonel Carrington's men returned the fire which some time before the rebels had opened, and the war was begun. In this encounter Lerothodi's men were easily repulsed, but shortly after simultaneous attacks were made by Basutos on the three stations Maseru, Mafeteng, and Molehales Hock. The estimates of numbers throughout the war, we may remark, were conflicting; but, certainly, thousands attacked each place. The assault on Mafeteng was particularly obstinate. Then, and afterwards, the colonials found the Basutos formidable antago-

¹ The ordinary maps of Basutoland are so defective that the following explanations seem necessary. The whole territory is divided into five districts. The strip east of the Orange River is Quithing. Of the rest the northern section is Leribe. South of that, in a rectangular strip, is Berea. Filling up what remains, south of Berea is Thaba Bosigo, except a small patch between the Orange and Kornet Spruit Rivers, which is called Kornet Spruit. The seats of magistracy of the respective districts are on, or within a few miles of, the Orange Free State border. They are, enumerating from the south, *Kornet Spruit*; Molehales Hock; *Thaba Bosigo* (sub-district); Mafeteng. *Thaba Bosigo*; Maseru (the mountain of Thaba Bosigo is about ten miles east of Maseru). *Berea*: Advance Post. *Leribe*: Leribe. Letsea's place, Moria, is about midway between Maseru and Mafeteng. Besides the stations named there are many other mission and trading stations. The country, especially the eastern part, is mountainous; flat-topped precipitous hills, forming almost impregnable fortresses, being frequent. Fertile land, however, is abundant. The population was, in 1875, 127,000.

nists. Mounted on little horses, which could go at any pace over any kind of ground, and availing themselves with wonderful instinct of cover, they fought with much tactical skill. Their aim was said to be accurate; but, if so, the colonials must have been lucky in finding cover, for the casualties were never very serious. The discipline of the Basutos was admirable; even in retreat they stopped to pick up and carry away their dead and wounded. All the assaults on the garrisons were repelled, but the situation of the little band of civilians which held Mohales Hock was for weeks critical. Reinforcements of 2,000 were hastily raised and despatched from Cape Colony, and on October 19 General Clarke (the commandant of the colonial forces), advanced to the relief of Mafeteng with a column of 1,600 men—mounted rifles, yeomanry and volunteers.¹ A large force of Basutos was encountered on the road. A body of yeomanry which pursued some retreating Basutos was surprised at the crest of the ridge, and about thirty fell stabbed with assegais. The rest of the column reached Mafeteng in safety. Mohales Hock, also, was relieved. A few days after an attack was made on Lerothodi's village stronghold, near Mafeteng, and it was gallantly captured after hard fighting. But on the 31st an attempt to occupy a mountain farther on ended almost in disaster. The Basutos made no serious resistance at the point attacked, but in overwhelming numbers pressed on the little band left at Lerothodi's village. The main force came barely in time to save them, and after eighteen hours' absence from camp at Mafeteng, all had to retire, leaving both positions in the hands of the enemy.

Meanwhile events of the most serious kind had occurred elsewhere. It had often been predicted by the opponents of the disarmament policy that natives everywhere would make common cause with the Basutos. Hardly had the Rifles crossed into Basutoland when a section of the Tambukis, dwelling in the Herschall district of Cape Colony, on the southern border of Basutoland, rose. The insurgents here were kept successfully in check by the magistrate and local levies. But later, there was a far more serious and extensive rising of the various tribes and broken fragments of tribes which dwell or had been located in the region between Natal, Basutoland, Cape Colony proper, and the sea, a region once known as Independent Kaffraria, but formally annexed (with the exception of Pondoland) to Cape Colony during the year 1880. The Cape Mounted Rifles, who had been quartered at Kokstadt in East Griqualand (one of the divisions of this tract which adjoins Basutoland), had been withdrawn, in order to act

¹ The mounted rifles may be regarded as the standing army, while the yeomanry and volunteers are part of the regularly enrolled and embodied forces, which (under the new responsibility for providing for its own defence) the Cape Parliament had created. The other classes liable to be called out were burghers and native levies. The burghers were, in fact, citizens on whom military service was, under certain circumstances, compulsory. Though numerous, they had received hardly any training.

with General Clarke for the relief of Mafeteng. The Basutos in the east of East Griqualand soon rose in sympathy with their kinsmen in Basutoland. There was no force to subdue them. Mr. Hope, the magistrate in one section of the Pondomisi country, induced the chief to promise to act against the Griqualand insurgents. In accordance with Kaffir custom there was a great war dance before the start. Mr. Hope and a few other whites were present as spectators. In the midst of the ceremony, they were attacked by their hosts. Mr. Hope and two of the whites were murdered. A general rising followed. Here and there a chief was loyal, but, speaking generally, the Tembus, the Pondomisi, and the Basutos of Griqualand East—numbering in all about 200,000 souls—were in revolt. Traders, stores, mission stations, and the seats of magistracy, were attacked and sacked. Natives who showed symptoms of loyalty were “eaten up.” In two places the magistrates for a time remained beleaguered by hosts of rebels till they were brought out by a relieving force, and for a time colonial authority was maintained only at Umtata, in Tembuland, and Kokstadt, and there only by a handful of Europeans with some native levies. Even within the borders of the colony proper the emigrant Tembus were up, and panic reigned at some of the border towns. The Pondomisi chief, in an interview with a missionary, admitted that he was rushing blindly over a precipice; but natives, he said, driven to despair, had to do something to save themselves from extermination. His grievances, translated from his exaggerated description of them, were—1. The compulsory disarmament; 2. The system of “passes” which the Cape Government had introduced to control the movements of natives; 3. The system of branding cattle—intended to discourage cattle-robbery, the fruitful cause of border war; 4. The removal of some Kaffir women, whose friends could not be found, after the disturbances of 1879. We may say here that the Fingoes—who had also been disarmed—were throughout loyal to Government, and though at first, having no arms, they were not able to defend themselves very well against the attacks of the rebels, yet subsequently they gave valuable aid in suppressing the disturbances. Before the outbreak there had been frequent communications between the Basuto malcontents and the Kaffir tribes. General Clarke, recognising the gravity of the situation, returned to King Williamstown to organise a force for the pacification of Kaffraria, and for more vigorous measures in Basutoland. Mounted troops of a singularly effective kind were raised in Natal, the Transvaal, and the Diamond Fields; but otherwise no assistance was given from beyond the Colony. Within it additional calls for volunteers and yeomanry were made, and a large number of burghers and natives were called out. As was to be expected, a good many cases of individual hardship and reluctance to serve were reported in the papers opposed to the policy of the war. Altogether, Mr. Sprigg estimated, 12,000 men would be in the field. Before the close of the year several hundred burghers

had reached Mafeteng. Meanwhile Colonel Carrington, with a force of about 1,000 men and three guns, made frequent patrolling expeditions from that place. They were often attacked by bodies of the enemy, five or six times as numerous: but steadily and gallantly as the Basutos fought, their attacks, though sometimes with great difficulty and grave loss on the Colonial side, were repelled. The object of the patrolling was to discourage the Basutos by convincing them of their impotence and by destroying their crops and villages. Leribe meanwhile had been attacked by insurgent Basutos, and the Europeans there relieved only by a rapid march of the Diamond Fields Horse.

The new reinforcements were used in the first instance chiefly to suppress the rising in Kaffraria. Before the end of the year a great victory over the Pandomisi chief broke the neck of the rebellion. There was much anxiety as to the Pondos, but the chiefs of the two sections, though their attitude seemed sometimes suspicious, did not move openly against the Colonial Government, and the lesser of the two chiefs gave active help at a critical time.

The controversies connected with the recall of Sir Bartle Frere belong as much to English as to South African politics. It is enough here to say that, in spite of the condemnation of his policy by all the leading members of the new Ministry when they were in Opposition, and especially during the election agitation, he was not recalled when they assumed office. To the protests of many of their supporters, Ministers replied that the accomplishment of Confederation was a matter of vital importance, that Sir Bartle Frere, holding as he did the thread of affairs, and having much personal influence in Cape Colony, was more likely to further the project than a new Governor would be. After the Confederation question was settled, the Government would do whatever was proper. Meanwhile they deprived him of a special allowance granted at a time when his duties as High Commissioner were likely to involve prolonged absence from the seat of government. Sir Bartle Frere protested warmly against the slight implied in this, alleging that his expenses had not been diminished by the restriction of his functions. Soon after Mr. Sprigg introduced the Confederation resolutions in the House of Assembly. They declared that it was expedient that a conference of representatives should ascertain the practicability or otherwise of a legislative and administrative confederation of the various British South African colonies. The High Commissioner was to be President: six members were to represent Cape Colony, three Griqualand West, three Natal, and three the Transvaal. The decision of the Conference was to have no binding effect till it was confirmed by the Governments of the individual colonies and approved by the Home Government. To this resolution there were two sets of amendments. One amended the Ministerial proposal in form and detail; the other declared the consideration of Confederation wholly inopportune. Mr. Sprigg's speech was apologetic and by no

means sanguine in tone. He showed that Confederation had long been contemplated by all parties at the Cape as well as by the Home Government. The fact that the present was a time of transition seemed to him to prove rather than to disprove the necessity of constituting some strong central authority. Cape Colony could not, he said, remain like a snail in its shell. Unless timely and large measures were taken, the troubles which would first attack Natal and the Transvaal would soon touch Cape Colony. Discussing the proposal that the Imperial Government should be left in control of the frontier districts, he said that Cape Colony would have to pay most of the cost, and have no power to prevent Imperial blundering. Natal and the Transvaal, he thought, would favour Confederation, as the first would, under such a scheme get responsible government, and the latter the practical independence it claimed. Whatever the result of the Conference might be, it was simply decent to consider the proposals of the Home Government. The grounds on which Mr. Sprigg's proposal was opposed were many and various. To go into Conference would virtually, it was urged, be to admit the principle of Confederation, and no one could say what influence Sir Bartle Frere's personal charm, and the allurements of honours in the gift of the home Government, might have on the delegates. Cape Colony did not want Confederation; it could provide for its own affairs well enough. Natal was settled on a wrong principle. The Transvaal was wrongly annexed. No one could say how the new arrangement in Zululand would work. Let the Crown remain responsible for its own blunders. After a languid debate of four days, Mr. Sprigg, seeing that he could reckon on too small a majority to justify the adoption of Confederation, withdrew his resolutions.

After the despatches explanatory of the failure of the scheme had reached England, Sir Bartle Frere was informed by telegraph that he was recalled. He had been kept in office, he was told, only to further Confederation; and as there was no hope of this being carried into effect, and he was, on other matters, not in accord with Government, it would be unfair to him and to Government to maintain him in his position. In reply Sir Bartle Frere argued that on the various pending questions he had given effect to the wishes of Government, and that there was no want of accord. The slights put on him by Government, he contended, had weakened his authority in the colony, and to this he attributed in part the failure of Confederation. We have already said that the Boer delegates in Cape Colony had made great efforts to defeat the scheme.

The fierce controversies which attended the whole course of Sir Bartle Frere's administration marked its close. While the party of which the *Cape Argus* may be recognised as the organ regarded his recall as the necessary condition for a safer and juster policy in South Africa, crowded and enthusiastic meetings in most of the towns condemned the step taken by the Home Government, applauded

the policy which led to the Zulu War, and spoke of the departing Governor as the saviour of South Africa. Even his political opponents joined in the testimony to his personal courtesy and the purity of his aims. General Clifford assumed charge of the Government till Sir G. Strahan arrived to act as administrator. Sir Hercules Robinson, who had been appointed to succeed as Governor, did not arrive within the year.

The budget statement of Cape Colony made in June was of a singularly encouraging kind. The revenue of the current year was estimated at 2,509,216*l.*, that is to say, 200,000*l.* in excess even of the sanguine forecast of the previous year. The flourishing condition of the customs revenue justified, Mr. Sprigg said, a great scheme of railway extension. Accordingly a project for connecting the existing lines and extending them to the northern border, at an estimated cost of nearly seven and a half millions, was brought forward. But the measure, encountering opposition both in principle and detail, was withdrawn. Notwithstanding the failure of the Ministry as regards its railway and confederation policy, it secured adequate majorities wherever the question of confidence was brought forward, as it repeatedly was, by the Opposition.

The long-pending controversy as to the future status of Griqualand West (the Diamond Fields) was brought to a close in 1880. There had been within the province a good deal of opposition to the proposed annexation to Cape Colony; but the change, nevertheless, was finally carried into effect. The yield of diamonds was satisfactory, and there was much speculation in "claims." A great robbery from the Post Office at Cape Town of diamonds which were awaiting despatch to England caused much excitement for some weeks.

Acts were passed in the Cape Legislature, authorising the detention as Imperial prisoners of Cetewayo and Sakakuni. Those who sympathised with the fallen fortunes of the Zulu prince made many representations as to the unnecessary strictness of the confinement in which he was kept. Orders on the subject were sent from England, and he was allowed as free access of friends and as much personal liberty as were consistent with his safe custody.

The repudiation by the Dean of Grahamstown of the authority of his Bishop caused much excitement and controversy in the Church of South Africa. Indeed, as to the precise status of the Church itself, and its relation to the Anglican Church in England, there was much difference of ecclesiastical opinion. The Bishop of Cape Town, as Metropolitan, opposed the pretensions of the Dean, but the Court decided in his favour.

A British Commissioner had been for some time stationed at Walwich Bay, to prevent the importation of arms and to watch colonial interests generally. A Resident had also been sent to Damaraland to use his influence with the chief of that tribe; but it was decided that neither Damaraland nor Namaqualand should be

in any sense annexed. In August war (arising as usual from cattle thefts) broke out between the Damaras and Namaquas. The Resident was recalled, and though urgent representations were made on behalf of the German missionary traders in that country, the Cape Government decided to concern itself with nothing that occurred outside the small tract round the British settlement at Walwich Bay.

The sufferings of a party of Boers who had "trekked" from the Transvaal towards the West Coast excited much interest in Cape Colony, and a small expedition was despatched from Walwich Bay for the relief of the survivors.

The Orange Free State was disturbed by a threatened outbreak of civil war in the Barolong country, a native territory enclosed within the State. The Basuto war, too, troubled it; for many Basutos dwelt within the State. The burghers were believed to have sold arms and horses freely to the insurgents; but the Government of the State maintained a neutrality benevolent to the colonists, allowing, as we have seen, the colonial troops to march through their territory. Later on, the Dutch people of the State were intensely excited by the movement in the Transvaal, and the position of the English residents became very painful.

In Natal there was some agitation for the grant of responsible government on the expiration of the term of the existing constitution. But the Home Government decided that it would be premature to confer it. Speaking generally, the colony was peaceful and prosperous.

The first year of Sir Garnet Wolseley's settlement of Zululand passed quietly. The chiefs appointed by him showed a disposition to conform to the advice of the Resident; and the only disquiet that existed was due to fraudulent representations made by native traders from Natal as to the intentions of the Government. Ordinary crime was almost unknown. The chiefs abstained from "killing," but not wholly from "eating up" the property of persons who disobeyed their orders. In all the districts except that of John Dunn the missionaries returned and reoccupied their old stations. Even Dunn made arrangements for receiving some Norwegian missionaries in place of the "worthless" German ones, whom he excluded. A great many people came in from Natal to see their friends in Zululand, and there was a wholesale emigration of labourers from Zululand to Natal, who returned to their homes with ample earnings. Trade was as brisk as ever, but towards the end of the year there was serious scarcity in the tracts traversed by our forces during the war, due, of course, to the consumption of crops and the disturbance of sowing operations.

A melancholy and romantic interest attached to the pilgrimage made by the Empress Eugenie to the spot where her son the Prince Imperial fell a year before. On the anniversary of his death a requiem mass was said close to the spot, and the Empress spent the night in prayer there.

CHAPTER IX.

NORTH AND SOUTH AMERICA.

I. THE UNITED STATES.

At the close of the year 1879, there was a possibility that the high-handed conduct of Governor Garcelon in the State of Maine would lead to serious excitement throughout the country. This possibility was removed by the Democrats, who had been defeated at the polls in Maine, submitting to their victorious opponents taking possession of the State Government. Owing to the settlement of this question, the preparation for the Presidential election was unaffected by the consideration that an electoral fraud which had been successfully achieved in Maine by the Democrats resembled, if it did not counterbalance, the alleged electoral frauds which the Republicans had committed in Florida at the Presidential election of 1876.

As is usual when a President of the United States is elected, the choice of one was the principal event of the year, and occupied the chief part of the attention and time of the people. A new proposal was presented for their consideration, that of electing General Grant to the Presidency for the third time. This desire on the part of the friends of General Grant was not shared by all the members of the Republican party, while many opposed it as an innovation on the unwritten rules which had governed the election of Presidents from the day that Washington declined reelection for the third time. Owing to the energy and determination of General Grant's friends, a large number of delegates was elected with the declared intention of nominating him at the Republican Convention which met at Chicago in June. Mr. Senator Conkling was the leader of the movement for nominating General Grant, and he displayed much skill and little scruple in organising what many deemed certain victory.

The other Republican candidates who had each a considerable following and ardent admirers were Senator Blaine, of Maine, Mr. John Sherman, of Ohio, Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Senator Edmunds, of Vermont, Mr. E. B. Washburne, of Illinois, Senator Windom, of Minnesota. It was confidently expected by Senators Conkling, Logan, and Cameron that the number of delegates appointed by the several States to vote for General Grant was so large that his nomination was beyond all question. Their calculation was upset by an occurrence shortly after the meeting of the Convention at Chicago. This was the rejection of what is styled the "unit rule," meaning that, if the majority of delegates from a State are in favour of a particular candidate, the minority shall unite with the majority and allow all the votes of the State to be recorded for the one candidate. If this rule had been in force,

there would have been no doubt about the nomination of General Grant; however, the Convention having rejected the unit rule, the delegates from each State were free to exercise their individual discretion, and the issue became uncertain. The first ballot was taken on June 7, that is, the fifth day after the meeting of the Convention. The result was that General Grant received 304 votes, Mr. Blaine 284, Mr. Sherman 93, Mr. Washburne 30, Mr. Edmunds 34, and Mr. Windom 10. This order was maintained, with trifling variations, during thirty-three successive balloting. At twenty-seven of these ballotings General Garfield, of Ohio, who had nominated Mr. Secretary Sherman, received sometimes one vote and sometimes two. At the thirty-fourth ballot he received 17, at the thirty-fifth 50, and at the thirty-sixth and last he received 399, being a majority of all the votes; accordingly, he was nominated the candidate of the Republican party for the Presidency. General Arthur, of New York, was nominated the candidate of that party for the Vice-Presidency.

The "platform" or declaration of principles set forth at Chicago, and upon which the Republican party based an appeal to elect their candidates, contained few points of novelty or special interest. It began with a recital and a glorification of what the party had done or took credit for accomplishing during the last twenty years; setting forth how it had emancipated the slaves, increased the railway mileage, added to the foreign trade, diminished the public burdens, and reduced the public debt. In the future the party undertook to labour against the appropriation of money to support sectarian schools, to abolish the practice of polygamy, and to regulate and restrain the immigration of the Chinese. The party praised the conduct of Mr. Hayes while President, deplored the fact that the Democrats were inspired with a lust for office, and that the South remained "solid" on the side of their opponents. Before the platform containing these declarations was adopted, it was proposed by Mr. Barker, of Massachusetts, to add the following resolution:—"The Republican party, adhering to the principles affirmed by its last National Convention of respect for the Constitutional rules governing appointments to office, adopts the declaration of President Hayes that the reform in the Civil Service shall be thorough, radical, and complete. To that end it demands the co-operation of the legislative with the executive departments of the Government, and that Congress shall so legislate that fitness, ascertained by proper practical tests, shall admit to the public service." This resolution was accepted by the Convention after a long discussion on a clause that the tenure of office should be during good behaviour, the addition of that clause being rejected. During the discussion, Mr. Flannigan, a delegate from Texas who had once been Lieutenant-Governor of that State, made a statement which excited much notice at the time, and which deserves to be preserved as a candid avowal of sentiments which generally prevail, but which are commonly concealed. He said that Texas

had no liking for Civil Service reform, that he had not come to Chicago to help the Democrats to get office. "What are we here for," he exclaimed, "except to get the offices?"

On June 25 the National Democratic Convention met at Cincinnati, and nominated General Hancock, of Pennsylvania, as a candidate for the Presidency, and Mr. English, of Ohio, as the candidate for the Vice-Presidency. The problem in the Democratic ranks was whether Mr. Tilden, whom many believed to have been actually chosen in 1876, should not again be placed before the people as an acceptable candidate; while on the Republican side a large number would not vote for General Grant, as large a number on the Democratic side would not vote for Mr. Tilden. The latter showed his tactical skill in formally withdrawing himself from the list of candidates immediately before the meeting of the Convention. From the time that Mr. Tilden ceased to be a candidate, the choice lay between General Hancock and Mr. Senator Bayard, of Delaware. The special recommendation of General Hancock was that, as an officer in the United States Army who had been the victor at Gettysberg, he would be accepted by the North as being free from any leaning towards the "lost cause," while at the South he was popular owing to his conduct after the war, when, on taking command at New Orleans of the department of the States of Louisiana and Texas, he issued a general order, numbered 40, wherein he expressed his purpose to subordinate the military to the civil power, to respect the liberties of the people, and to confine the use of arms to suppressing armed insurrections and forcible resistance to the law. Mr. English, of Indiana, was selected to be the candidate for Vice-President. One of the noteworthy incidents of the Convention was the avowal of Mr. John Kelly, of New York, the leader of the Tammany Hall party and bitterly opposed to Mr. Tilden and his supporters, that the entire democracy of New York would unite in supporting General Hancock and Mr. English. The principal parts of the "platform" of the Democratic party were: opposition to centralisation, a tariff for revenue only, a general and thorough reform of the Civil Service, and an amendment of the Burlingame Treaty, with the view of stopping the immigration of the Chinese.

Between the adjournment of the Republican and the meeting of the Democratic Convention, another met at Chicago with the view of nominating a Presidential candidate who should espouse the views of the Greenback-Labour party. This party was joined by another called the Socialist, and the united body agreed to a "platform" containing the following leading principles. In the preamble it stated that the Government's first duty was to make money cheap and labour dear; next it declared that the right of issuing money was inherent in the Government; that the bonds of the United States should be paid off at maturity in legal tender currency to be issued for the purpose; that "the national banking system should be abolished, and the unlimited coinage of silver

as well as gold established by law ;” that “slavery being cheap labour, and cheap labour being simply slavery,” the Burlinghame Treaty should be abrogated, and the immigration of the Chinese prohibited ; that the eight hours law respecting labour should be enforced ; that commerce should be fostered ; that all corporate monopolies should be abolished ; that a graduated income-tax should be imposed ; and that “a government of the people, for the people, and by the people,” should be substituted for “a government of the bondholders, for the bondholders, and by the bondholders.” General B. Weaver, of Iowa, and General B. J. Chambers, of Texas, were nominated the candidates of this third party for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency.

From the month of June, when the three parties nominated their respective candidates, till the beginning of November, when the popular vote was taken, the discussion of the merits of each candidate, and of the aims and services of each party, was carried on with an acerbity and vigour altogether unprecedented. General Garfield was accused of complicity in the Credit Mobilier frauds, which had damaged the characters of other public men, and had led to the retirement of Mr. Colfax, an ex-Vice-President, into private life. General Hancock was charged with having been privy to a scheme for seating Mr. Tilden in the Presidential chair in 1876. The friends of the first made a defence of him which satisfied reasonable people, while the publication of a letter written by the second to General Sherman not only dispelled the calumny of which he was the object, but showed that General Hancock had taken a statesmanlike as well as a highly patriotic view of a crisis which might have proved alarming. The Republican and Democratic candidates for the Vice-Presidency were unsparingly denounced ; General Arthur being accused of unmanly conduct both as an official and as a political manager, and Mr. English being held up to scorn as niggardly and bent upon taking unfair advantage of his poorer neighbours. General Grant came forth from his retirement, and spoke at many meetings in support of the Republican party and its candidates, alleging that the Republic would be as greatly imperilled if the Democrats returned to power as it would have been had the rebels proved victorious on the battle-field.

The incident in the electoral campaign which attracted the most attention, and which might have proved very serious, was the publication of the following letter, purporting to have been written by General Garfield to Mr. H. L. Morey, of the Employers’ Union, Lynn, Massachusetts :—

“Yours in relation to the Chinese problem came duly to hand. I take it that the question of *employés* is only a question of private and corporate economy, and individuals or companies have the right to buy labour where they can get it cheapest. We have a treaty with the Chinese Government which should be religiously kept until its provisions are abrogated by the action of the general

Government, and I am not prepared to say that it should be abrogated until our great manufacturing interests are conserved in the matter of labour."

This letter produced a great impression on both parties. The Republicans felt that it would damage their cause in the States on the Pacific, where the aversion to Chinese labour is extreme, while the Democrats rejoiced that the candidate of the opposite party had committed a gross blunder from a purely political point of view. The former party was pleased without the latter one being satisfied, when General Garfield not only sent a telegram to the effect that he had never written the letter, but also authorised the publication of the following denial, dated October 23, and addressed to the Hon. Marshall Jewell, Chairman of the Republican National Committee:—

"In my despatches of yesterday and this evening (which are also sent you by mail), I have denounced the Morey letter as a base forgery. Its stupid and brutal sentiments I never expressed, nor entertained. The lithographic copy shows a very clumsy attempt to imitate my penmanship and signature. Anyone who is familiar with my handwriting will instantly see that the letter is spurious."

The letter was a forgery; General Garfield had no reason, however, for including among the sentiments which he styled "stupid and brutal," such a one as that which favoured the observance of a treaty with China. Indeed, the terms of the letter were so much in accordance with General Garfield's expressions in the House of Representatives, that many persons fancied the letter must be genuine, notwithstanding that it had been stigmatised as a forgery. The vote of the State of California was lost to the Republican party owing to this belief. In Denver, the capital of Colorado, an attack upon the Chinamen was fomented by those persons who upheld "the Morey letter," and was perpetrated by others who gave credence to the story. The riot took place on Sunday, October 31. On the evening of the preceding day the Democrats walked in procession through the streets, carrying banners and placards, on which such words were inscribed as that "The Chinese must go." On Sunday afternoon a dispute arose in which it was said that a Chinaman was the aggressor. However, this was regarded as a fitting opportunity for beginning an attack upon the Chinese quarter. The riot lasted from the afternoon of Sunday till early in Monday morning, with the result of one Chinaman—Sing-Lee—being killed, other Chinamen very seriously wounded, all the Chinese dwellings being gutted and many razed to the ground, and all the Chinese of both sexes who had been rescued from mob violence being lodged, for their own safety, in the public gaol. This riot occurred too near the elections to produce an effect throughout the country, but in the State of Colorado itself the riot is supposed to have lost the Democratic party many votes.

The election took place on Tuesday, November 2. The parties were so evenly balanced that it was felt the State of New York, by voting on one side or the other, would determine the election, and, as the Democrats have usually been able to command a large majority in that State, they made certain of securing its vote, and of placing General Hancock in the Presidential chair. To the surprise of both parties, the State of New York voted for the Republican party by a majority of 20,000. The State of California, on the other hand, which had uniformly voted with the Republican party, gave its vote in favour of General Hancock and the Democrats. The Southern States were unanimous for General Hancock; the Northern ones were equally united in favour of General Garfield. General Weaver, the Greenback and Labour candidate, was not supported by any State. The result was that General Garfield received 219 votes, and General Hancock 185. If the thirty-five votes of the State of New York had been given to General Hancock, he would have been elected President by a majority of one; as it was, his opponent gained his election by a majority of thirty-four. It was found that the popular majority in favour of General Garfield was only 8,235.

Not only did the Republicans secure the election of their candidate for the Presidency; they also changed their minority in the House of Representatives into a working majority, and they diminished the Democratic majority in the Senate so much as to render the two parties equal there, or else to hinder the Democrats from having more than a single vote in excess of the Republicans.

The Republican victory was hailed with satisfaction in Great Britain as well as throughout the United States. The changes in persons and policy which would have ensued had the result been reversed, were dreaded by business men through the principal States of the Union, while in Great Britain it was felt that the Republican party had shown much greater reluctance to excite international jealousy than the Democrats. In consequence of this feeling business became active beyond recent precedent. Seldom in the history of the United States has there been a greater increase in values in stocks and shares than took place there late in last autumn.

A convincing proof of the continuous improvement in business throughout the United States during the last few years is to be found in the statistics of mercantile failures. In 1878 the number of failures was 10,478, and the total liability was 234,363,000 dollars. In 1879 the failures numbered 6,658, and the total liability was 98,140,000 dollars; while, in 1880, the diminution, both in the number of failures and the liability, was striking, the former being 4,735 and the latter 65,752,000 dollars. These failures were distributed throughout the country in the following proportions:—In the Eastern States they were in the ratio of 1 to every 118 business men; in the Southern, of 1 to every 131; in the

Middle States, of 1 to every 161 ; and in the Western States, of 1 to every 235. This result may thus be shown :—In 1878, every 64th trader became bankrupt ; in 1879, every 108th ; and in 1880, every 158th. The impression made by the figures will be still more profound if it be assumed that, in 1880, the traders represented a body numbering 750,000 ; out of this host not more than 4,735 succumbed. These particulars of the soundness with which business has been conducted last year gain in effect when it is remembered that the population is increasing at a rapid rate ; hence the figures just cited are not only remarkable in themselves, but they are especially noteworthy because they prove that the progress has outstripped all expectations. The full details of the census taken last year will not be ready for publication till late in 1881 ; yet the gross result is known, and it is highly flattering to the citizens of the United States. The population up to last year numbered 50,152,559. This vast multitude is due to an enormous addition made during the ten years which have elapsed since the last census, the number then being 38,558,371. In the brief space of ten years the country had upwards of 11½ millions of inhabitants added to it. A large proportion consisted of immigrants. In the course of the year 1880, a vast multitude had landed at New-York and other cities, of whom 586,000 were immigrants.

Some curious information with regard to the changes in the distribution of the population can be gleaned from the returns already made public. Thus it appears that the States having upwards of a million inhabitants have increased from 15 in 1870 to 19 in 1880, the four that show this advance being Texas, Alabama, Mississippi, and New Jersey. The number of cities having more than 30,000 inhabitants is 64 now, as compared with 36 ten years ago ; while the corresponding increase in the cities having upwards of 100,000 is as 20 to 14. Chicago, which was fifth on the list in 1870, is now fourth, and St. Louis, its rival, which used to be fourth, is now sixth. The cities which have risen in ten years to have more than 100,000 inhabitants are Cleveland, Pittsburgh, Jersey City, Detroit, Milwaukee and Providence.

Great activity in constructing railways has been a characteristic of late years. Every State in the Union, except New Hampshire and Mississippi, has added to its railway mileage, and the same thing is true of all the Territories with the exceptions of the District of Columbia, Idaho, Wyoming, and the Indian Territory. The most work has naturally been done in those parts of the continent where settlement is most rapid. Upwards of one-half of the increased mileage has been in the thriving States of Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado, and Texas, and in the Territories of Arizona, Dakota, Montana, New Mexico, Utah, and Washington Territory. Vigorous endeavours are in progress for carrying railways into Mexico. Intercommunication with that Republic is the leading desire of General Grant, who has frequently expressed

himself anxious to contribute to bringing the two Republics into closer contact. Two lines of rail, now in process of construction, are being extended towards Mexico, with the design of reaching the capital; the one which starts from Kansas City in the State of Missouri, and runs through Kansas and New Mexico, has approached the Mexican border; the other starts from Denver, the capital of Colorado, and is being carried through New Mexico.

While the population of the country is increasing rapidly, while trade and commerce have seldom been more active, while business has never before been conducted on a sounder basis, while the energy in covering the land with railways has been one of the notable characteristics of last year, the decline in the shipping of the United States, which has been going on for several years, has not yet been arrested, and it furnishes a gloomy side to the brilliant picture. The exports and imports have increased from 641,604,850 dollars in 1856 to 1,613,770,663 in 1880. Of these exports and imports 75·2 per cent. were carried in United States ships in 1856, whereas, in 1880, the percentage was but 17·4. While British tonnage in United States ports has increased 6,976,173 tons since 1856, while German tonnage has increased 922,903, and French 208,412, that of the United States, during the same period, has declined 65,901 tons. The result of the decline is that, whereas United States vessels carried a little more than half as much in 1880 as they did in 1856, foreign vessels carried eight times more in 1880 than they did in 1856.

As one means of giving greater employment to United States vessels, especially those engaged in the coasting trade, of which they have a monopoly, it has often been proposed to make a ship canal from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. The interest in the project revived last year, when M. de Lesseps paid a visit to the American continent, examined the Isthmus of Panama, and declared that a canal across the Isthmus was perfectly feasible. In the spring he visited the United States, and not only stated his views in private and at public meetings, but also before a Committee of Congress. He informed the committee that a canal by way of Panama, costing \$168,000,000, could be made in eight years; when made, its length would be forty miles, its width would be fifty yards at the surface, and twenty at the bottom, and a hundred ships would be able to pass through it daily. As regarded another projected route by way of Nicaragua, M. Lesseps estimated that a harbour would have to be made at Brito, and that from seventeen to twenty locks would be necessary, that each lock would detain a vessel two hours, and that not more than twelve vessels could pass through the canal in a day. General Grant declared himself an advocate of the Nicaraguan route, and Mr. Senator Burnside pronounced the construction of a canal by France, as represented by M. Lesseps, a violation of the "Monroe Doctrine." The members of the Cabinet and the President gave their sanction to Mr. Senator Burnside's views, and

the President sent a message to Congress to the effect that any canal made across the Isthmus of Panama, and through the territory of the Republic of Columbia, must be under the control of the United States of North America. M. Lesseps was not daunted by this opposition, but set himself to establish a company for making the canal. More than twice the number of shares offered by him for public subscription were applied for, and an agreement was entered into with a firm of contractors to complete the work for 512,000,000 francs. Moreover, Mr. Thompson, the Secretary of the Navy in President Hayes' Cabinet, resigned his office in order to become chairman of the company in the United States. On the other hand, General Grant accepted the chairmanship of the rival project, the Nicaragua canal, which had the support of the United States Government.

Two well-known citizens of the United Kingdom visited the United States last year, on missions of a semi-public character. The one was Mr. Parnell, who went thither in January to solicit contributions for the relief of the starving Irish poor, and also contributions to the funds of the Land League, which had been founded by the Home Rule party for the purpose of agitation, the latter body being destined, in his opinion, "to effect the regeneration of Ireland." Some indefensible speeches, in which Mr. Parnell made false charges against the Duchess of Marlborough and the Queen, alienated from him the sympathies of the respectable citizens of the country, and, though the latter contributed with their wonted generosity to relieve the distress in Ireland, they refused to support Mr. Parnell's political organisation. The other visitor was Mr. Thomas Hughes, who landed in August, and whose purpose was to establish an English Colony in Eastern Tennessee. This settlement is styled Rugby, and it is designed to afford a home to the persons in England who desire a change, and who are "prepared for some years, during the working hours of the day, to live the life of a peasant," in other words, to earn their living out of the soil by their own labour. After their day's work, they will have access to a good library and good society; they will also have an opportunity of dealing at a co-operative store, while on Sunday they can go to a church in which the service of any body of Christians may be performed. No intoxicating liquors are sold in Rugby, Tennessee.

A few other matters may be dismissed with a brief mention. Among these may be numbered the Court of Inquiry, which was held to investigate an alleged outrage on a coloured cadet at West Point, named Whittaker, which attracted the attention of many persons who are anxious that negroes should enjoy all the rights which were secured to them by the civil war. After a long investigation it was decided by the Court that the outrages of which Whittaker complained were self-inflicted. On September 17, the City of Boston celebrated with great pomp and enthusiasm the 250th anniversary of the memorable day upon which it was founded.

An Act of Congress was passed "to provide for celebrating the one hundredth anniversary of the treaty of peace (1783);" this will take the form of an International Exhibition in New York in 1883. Mr. Denis Kearny, the agitator who has devoted many years of his life to preaching that "the Chinese must go," and that "the lecherous bondholder" must be exterminated, having found his popularity decline, made a public announcement of his purpose to earn a livelihood by honest labour. Many citizens are proud of the fact, which has been noted by one of their influential journals as one of the remarkable occurrences of the year, that Mr. Vanderbilt's mare, Maude S., achieved the greatest known feat in trotting, having trotted a mile in two minutes ten seconds and three quarters. A notable illustration of human credulity was manifested last year, when many persons both in the United States and Europe believed that Dr. Tanner, a man craving for notoriety and not endowed with miraculous powers, had actually lived for forty days without taking anything more nourishing than water.

During the summer months of last year the number of collisions between steamers plying on the inland waters near New York City was so large that the entire list is too long to quote. In Long Island Sound, the "Stonington" ran into and sank the "Narragansett." In the East River the "Seawanhaka" took fire, and was burnt to the water's edge. In both of these cases the loss of life was very large; in many others the injury done was confined to property. On the other hand, considerable progress has been made in the introduction of the electric light, which, when employed in vessels will prove of service in preventing collisions, and when used on land tends to render life more enjoyable. The improvements in electric lighting which are expected from Mr. Edison will soon be put to a practical test, as he has obtained permission to introduce his system into a part of New York City. The "Columbia," a steamer plying between San Francisco and the Columbia river, has been fitted with these lamps, and they have given entire satisfaction. The Brush system of lighting by electricity has made rapid strides during the year, while another, of which Mr. Maxim is the inventor, promises to come into direct and successful rivalry with that of Mr. Edison.

While the general advance in all respects and departments has been marked through the United States during 1880, the country has had no such losses to mourn as may be ranked among national misfortunes. Mr. James Lenox, a New York merchant, who had devoted much of his time and means to forming a good library, and who gave this library and a building to contain it to his fellow-citizens, died in February in his eightieth year. Dr. George Ripley passed away in June at the age of eighty-seven. For thirty years he was the literary critic of the *New York Tribune*. In his younger days he formed one of the band of enthusiastic New Englanders who resolved to cultivate transcendentalism at Brooke Farm, and who found it a hopeless task to lead what they deemed a fitting life, and at the same time labour with their hands for

their daily bread, to think high thoughts and handle manure. His most important literary service was performed as an editor of *Appleton's Cyclopædia*. General Albert Myer's death in August, at the age of sixty-two, was a distinct loss to the country. He was at the head of the Meteorological Department, of which he was the founder, and though not a trained man of science, yet he contributed largely to advance the science of meteorology; his chief service being to organise the department over which he presided. Two ladies, who died at the ripe ages of seventy-eight and eighty-seven, Mrs. Lydia Maria Child and Mrs. Lucretia Mott, belonged to that energetic school of abolitionists which has seen its work achieved. Mrs. Child wrote novels as well as made appeals for the slaves; and she laboured as ardently for her sex being allowed to vote as she had done to emancipate the negroes. Her most useful, if not most enduring, work is the cookery book called "The Frugal Housewife." John Quincy Adams, writing in 1836, characterised Mrs. Mott, who was a Quakeress, as "sensible and lively, and an abolitionist of the most intrepid school." There was true heroism in the way in which she battled in order that the negroes and their advocates should enjoy free speech. Her name is inseparably and honourably associated with the cherished names of the truest New England philanthropists.

II. THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

The leading question in Canada during the year 1880 related to the railway from the Atlantic to the Pacific. This was the subject upon which the Government and the Opposition were as strongly at variance as they were concerning the expediency of the national or protective policy which has hitherto been the chief measure of Sir John Macdonald's administration. So far as the Customs duties are concerned, the result of the protective tariff has been to increase the revenue. This was anticipated by the opponents as well as by the upholders of the policy. What its opponents contend is that the increase is obtained at the cost of the consumer, and that the country is not benefited by a few manufacturers having been enriched. Another consequence predicted by Sir Leonard Tilley when he introduced his Budget in 1879, has come to pass; the imports from the United States have diminished by one half, while those from the United Kingdom have doubled. It is certain that the trade and commerce of Canada have been more active last year than for several years back, and that the depression in business has given place to animation and hopefulness. How far this is attributable to the protective or National policy, and how far it is due to the general improvement in trade throughout the North American continent and over the rest of the world, cannot as yet be determined. A longer time must elapse before the accumulated data will be adequate for the purpose of comparison and for justifying the historian in pronouncing a decision.

The jealousy of Canada which appears to prevail extensively in the United States was manifested last year in a statement by the United States Collector at the Port Huron Custom House, to the effect that many thousands had immigrated from Canada into the United States. Owing to the development of Manitoba and the North-West Territory, large numbers of persons have gone thither and, in order to reach their destination, they have had to pass through the United States. The rule appears to be to count all these persons as immigrants into the United States; hence the mistake originated about an exodus from Canada. The known addition to the population by immigration from Europe is 39,000. The export of cattle has become a source of wealth to Canadians, and this is the more profitable owing to the embargo, which forbids the landing of live United States cattle at an English port, not extending to Canadian cattle. The stringent measures taken to arrest disease among cattle in Canada have had the effect of keeping the country almost entirely free from it. Professor McEachran, the Dominion inspector of cattle, estimates that the stock of cattle, sheep, and swine in the country is 3,255,362 cattle, 3,944,424 sheep, and 1,707,604 swine. This number is sufficient to meet the drafts which may be made to supply a European demand. In 1880, the number of these animals shipped in a perfectly healthy state from Halifax, Quebec, and Montreal was 49,460 cattle, 81,443 sheep, and 700 swine.

A conclusive proof of the material prosperity of Canada is furnished by the large increase in the railway traffic. The receipts on the Intercolonial were in excess of any previous year, while the Grand Trunk has been able to pay a larger number of its bondholders than at any period in its history. That railway owes much of its present success to the energetic and judicious policy of Mr. Hickson, its manager, and after disappointing many hopes, it now promises to be as remunerative as well as useful an undertaking as its promoters anticipated. During the year it has obtained direct access to Chicago, so that traffic can now pass over Canadian lines of rail direct from Lake Michigan to the Atlantic seaboard.

None of these undertakings have greater national importance than the projected line of rail which will connect the existing Canadian railways with the Pacific Ocean. The length of line required to make this link is 2,627 miles. The construction of about 600 miles was undertaken by the Government of the Dominion, and 260 miles were completed and in operation at the close of the year. Last spring Sir John Macdonald and his colleagues resolved that they would not prosecute the enterprise as a Government one, but would transfer the work to a private company. With that object a deputation of Ministers visited London in the summer and remained there some time, returning home in the autumn, after entering into a provisional agreement with a syndicate to undertake the construction of the railway.

When the Dominion Parliament met in December, the principal business was to obtain legislative sanction to what had been done. The scheme of the Government was expounded in an elaborate speech by Sir Charles Tupper, Minister of Railways. The conditions and cost were thus stated by him:—"For that portion of the line from Fort William to Selkirk, 410 miles, the Pembina branch, 85 miles, and that portion from Kamloops to Burrard Inlet, 217 miles—all of which, amounting to 712 miles when the whole line is completed, is to be handed over as the property of the Company. The total amount expended and to be expended by the Government, including everything, is 28 million dollars. For the construction of the road from Lake Nipissing to Fort William, 650 miles, and from Selkirk to Kamloops, 1,350 miles—2,000 miles in all—the Government have agreed to pay, in addition to the 28 millions, 25 million dollars and 25 million acres of land; making a total subsidy, in cash, of 53 millions, and in land, estimating the 25 million acres at the same rate that I have estimated the land under the contract of 1873, and under the Act of 1874, one dollar an acre, of 25 million dollars, or a total amount to be expended by Canada for the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway of 78 million dollars." Ten years is the time within which the entire line is to be completed; the prairie section, which runs from Manitoba to the base of the Rocky Mountains, is expected to be entirely open for traffic in 1883.

The year closed while the scheme of the Government was still under the consideration of Parliament. Strong objections were raised to it by the Opposition in the House of Commons, and in the press. It was maintained that the land was reckoned at too low a price when fixed at one dollar an acre by Sir Charles Tupper. It was held that the prairie section was the only valuable one, and that to carry the line round the north shore of Lake Superior was unnecessary for the present. Sir John Macdonald, when he was formerly in office, and Mr. Mackenzie when he succeeded Sir John, had both framed schemes for the construction of the railway which had received Parliamentary assent. It may be historically useful to place all the schemes on record. They are as follows:—

ALLAN CHARTER.

54,500,000 acres of land at \$2	\$109,000,000
Cash subsidy	30,000,000
	\$139,000,000

MR. MACKENZIE'S ACT OF 1874.

55,940,000 acres land at \$2	\$111,880,000
Cash subsidy, \$10,000 per mile	29,779,000
Government guarantee on \$7,500 per mile at 4 per cent.	20,977,500
	\$162,636,500

VOTE OF PARLIAMENT 1879, ASSENTED TO WITHOUT OPPOSITION.

100,000,000 acres of land in North-West at \$2 an acre	\$200,000,000
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PROPOSAL BEFORE PARLIAMENT IN 1880.

Existing lines, with contracts completed	\$28,000,000
Cash subsidy	25,000,000
25,000,000 acres land at \$2	50,000,000
	\$103,000,000

Despite the objections urged against the scheme of 1880, it is almost certain to receive the approval of Parliament. In that event the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway is assured beyond all doubt, and that means an addition, not only to the great works of Canada, but also to those beneficent works of modern days which have rendered the globe better adapted for the habitation and comfort of man.

III. WEST INDIES.

The sugar market, which so nearly concerns the majority of the West India Islands, was subject to great fluctuations in 1880, attributable to the alteration of the French duties, the increased manufacture of glucose in the United States, and the agitation for a countervailing duty here against foreign bounties. The sugar crop of the whole of the West India Islands, including Cuba, for 1880-81, is estimated at 1,320,000 tons, whilst the beet crop of Europe, its formidable rival, is put down at 1,670,000 tons. Jamaica was visited with a terrible hurricane on August 11, accompanied by shocks of earthquake. Thousands of people were rendered houseless, colossal trees uprooted, churches demolished, the barracks at Kingston destroyed, three wharves swept away, and forty vessels wrecked in the harbour. But the chief loss lay in the destruction of fruit trees and growing crops, whilst a malignant fever prevailed through the want and exposure to which the population was subjected. Some of the high mountain fields, growing the finest coffee in the world, were almost stripped, and as coffee planters had not had an average crop for three or four years, they felt the blow severely. In Dominica an extraordinary volcanic eruption took place on January 4, resulting in the disappearance of the "Boiling Lake." The area exploded was fully nine square miles. Mountain slopes were denuded of vegetation, and stumps of gigantic trees and broken masses of rock alone remained of what had been a dense primeval forest. In one direction steam was seen to issue from a crater, and in another a majestic column of vapour rose from the "Boiling Lake," in the vicinity of which the eruption had taken place. This lake had been 300 yards wide; the eruption left it about 15 feet. In San Domingo there was a

serious fire on March 9, by which the business portion of Samaria was destroyed. In August the Government of this colony presented to the town of Pavia a portion of the remains of Columbus, consisting of small fragments of bone and dust enclosed in a glass ball and sealed by the Archbishop, whose secretary was the bearer of the relic. It was deposited in the University Library. In Barbados steps were being taken to establish a United Service Home for soldiers and sailors of the Royal Navy. The Government granted the use of a conveniently-situated building, and the Prince of Wales contributed 25 guineas. In Trinidad the railway bridge over the Couva river was formally tested and opened. Immigration in this colony was expected to reach 9,000 by the end of 1880, principally from Venezuela and adjacent colonies. In Cuba, although at the end of 1879 several insurgent chiefs still held out, the insurrection was practically crushed. In May Limbano Sanchez made his submission to the Spanish authorities at Santiago, together with 33 officers and 254 men. In June the Spanish troops had several successful encounters with the insurgent leader Calisto Garcia, capturing Rosada, his War Secretary, and other officers. Shortly after, Calisto Garcia, the sole remaining leader of the insurgents, Fonseca, his subordinate, and three other followers, gave themselves up. They formed the remnant of the last expedition that landed in Cuba, and the pacification of the island was considered complete, but the restoration of peace was not officially proclaimed until December 14. It was said that General Blanco, Captain-General of Cuba, was to be made a grandee of Spain, and that King Alphonso had agreed to the proposal that decorations and rewards should be conferred on the troops in Cuba in recognition of their services in quelling the insurrection. There were complaints by the United States Government that Spanish cruisers had fired upon and searched some American vessels, but upon investigation it seemed probable that it was pirates and not Spanish men-of-war who had offered the insults. In one instance, however, it was ascertained, after official inquiry, that a Spanish gunboat had fired across the bows of an American schooner in order to compel her to hoist her flag. The committee for revising the Customs' tariff completed their report, and it was to be submitted to the Cortes for approval. It proposed a reduction of the duties on articles of consumption, machinery and manufactured goods, and the suppression of the differential flag dues. It further recommended the free importation of Spanish cereals into Cuba, and a reduction of 10 pesetas per barrel on foreign cereals. Intelligence came from Havannah in September that the Cuban sugar crop for 1880 was 545,400 tons, as compared with 680,000 tons in 1879.

The *Gazette* of the last day of 1880 officially notified the fact that the British Empire had been enlarged by the annexation of Rotumah as an integral portion of the Fiji group, and that

island now forms part of the "West Indies of the Pacific." It is about thirteen miles long and four or five wide, rising in gentle well-wooded slopes from the sea to the range of hills forming its backbone, and having an elevation of about 1,000 feet. It enjoys a beautiful climate and the rainfall is plentiful. The lower lands are fertile, but the greater part of the island is uncultivated and given up to herds of pigs, which form the chief source of wealth to the natives. The latter are very friendly to white men, are cheerful and good-natured, but indolent. The island has no harbour, and is surrounded by coral reefs. It is about 250 miles to the north-west of the nearest of the Fiji group.

SOUTH AMERICA.

I. BRAZIL.

At the beginning of the year the Brazilian Exchequer was rather more embarrassed than usual from having to contribute largely towards the relief of those who had suffered from the drought in the northern provinces. Other troubles followed, culminating in a ministerial crisis, by which the Ministry of Senhor Cansansas de Sinimbri resigned on March 6, chiefly through the opposition to the intended dissolution by the Chamber of Deputies, and was replaced by another Liberal Ministry under Senhor Saraira. On May 3 the Brazilian Chambers were opened by the Emperor, Dom Pedro, who announced in a speech from the throne various projects that were in view for the advancement of the empire. As these were not realised, they need not be enumerated. The one great enactment of the year was the passing of an Electoral Reform Bill, which, through the ability of the new Minister Saraira, was founded on a more liberal basis than had hitherto prevailed, and the main feature of which was the removal of personal disabilities and the rendering of freedmen, Protestants, and naturalised foreigners eligible for the Chambers. Two leading questions to which public attention was especially directed, were those concerning Emancipation and Protection. As regards the former, Deputy Joaquim Nabuco, the leader of the anti-slavery movement, obtained leave to introduce a Bill for a more rapid liberation of slaves than that attainable under the Emancipation Law of 1871, and for the final extinction of slavery in Brazil by January 1, 1890. After its introduction the Government refused to sanction its further progress, alleging that it could not permit the consideration of so important a question at the same time with the Electoral Reform Bill, that the country was not in need of further legislation, that the existing law was solving the problem quite fast enough and in a satisfactory manner, and that the present financial difficulties of the Treasury and the depressed state of industry and business would not admit so great a strain

upon them. As regards Protection, several meetings attended by wealthy and influential business men were held, but without any result, and though the matter was frequently brought before the Government, nothing was gained but declarations by the Prime Minister and others against it. It is, however, so powerfully supported that something may be done in 1881. If so, it does not promise well for the future of Brazil, because her tariff is already high enough to be protective in other countries, whilst she lacks the stimulus for natural production. The Brazilian cannot be transformed into a manufacturer, for he is not made of stuff that can direct or perform skilled labour, nor has he the energy or administrative qualities to develop his resources so as to make them marketable. This, however, may shortly be tested practically, for a cotton factory, with machinery from England, and having twenty-four power-looms, is to be erected at Casa Branca during 1881. There is one thing that needs special attention and amendment, and that is the pernicious system of long credits. Latterly many of the importing houses at Rio have either adopted short credits or reduced their business to a cash basis; but this is insufficient, for a cash sale of the day means four months' credit. On the whole the financial position of the country is thought to be improving, chiefly owing to its increased production; and the coffee crop, on which the country depends for half its revenue, alone promises to yield six million bags. By comparison with the past, however, present progress cannot be considered satisfactory. The revenue, which had again and again doubled itself every tenth year, was 12,000,000*l.* in 1873. Since then it has not proved sufficient for its expenditure, and there has been an annual deficit of 2,000,000*l.*, the effect of which has been to increase the National Debt by subsequent loans from seventy-two millions in 1876 to eighty millions in 1880. One half the revenue is usually absorbed by the charge on the debt and in army and navy expenditure, whilst one fourth is devoted either to the construction of railways or to the guarantee of their interest at 7 per cent. The Budget for 1880-81 estimated the expenditure at 114,183,138 milreis, and the receipts at about 115,449,000 milreis, the surplus to be applied to the reduction of paper money. For a long time the leading feature in Brazilian progress has been the extension of its railways, but the area to be traversed was so vast that there could be no immediate return for the necessarily large outlay, and there were many failures, notably the attempt to develop the navigation of the San Francisco river by constructing railways from Bahia and Pernambuco. It is perhaps hazardous to predict success for those gigantic lines which are to be continued to the frontiers of Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia, but, on the other hand, some railways have been paying large dividends, and the latest enterprise really promises well, the necessary funds having been raised in England under an imperial guarantee of 7 per cent. This is the Donna Thereza Christina Railway, in the province of Santa

Catherina, noted for its excellent coal, which has hitherto needed a railway to convey it to the seaboard, and the company will not only possess the railway and coal mines, but also other advantages of which they have secured a monopoly for many years. Another railway, inaugurated by the Emperor in April, and for which success is looked, has been undertaken from the port of Paranagua to Coritiba, in the province of Parana, by a French company, who have provided the capital and secured an imperial guarantee. The only produce which gives fair returns is coffee. Brazil makes about one half of the coffee produced throughout the world, and it threatens to absorb all the productive powers of the empire, for the other branches of agricultural industry in Brazil are declining. Her other principal exports are sugar, cotton, indiarubber, tobacco, Maté or Paraguay tea, and hides. England is her best customer, for she sends 30 per cent. and takes away 25 per cent.

There have been rumours of an unfriendly feeling growing up between Brazil and the Argentine Republic, in consequence of the increase in their respective armaments, but there appears to have been no foundation for such rumours, and the armaments were, as in Europe, only for self-defence. Owing to the warlike preparations of the Argentine Republic, the Brazilian Senate had unanimously voted a credit of 5,000,000 milreis for increasing the naval forces of the empire and 4,000,000 for improving the army material, the Government at the same time expressing its confidence in the pacific intentions of the Argentine Republic towards Brazil. To this probably may be attributed the rumours referred to.

Amongst the miscellaneous news of the year may be mentioned the signing of a treaty of commerce, on September 5, at Tientsing between Brazil and China. In October, the band of marauders that sacked the town of Januaria in 1879, was broken up, after a severe fight with the force sent in pursuit of it; sixty persons were killed and most of the bandits captured. The new London and Brazilian Bank received twenty years' prolongation of the charter authorising operations within the empire. Yellow fever was prevalent at Rio early in 1880, there being eight or ten deaths daily, but it did not assume the form of an epidemic. The legislature voted a subsidy of 100,000 milreis per annum for a monthly line of steamers to be started shortly between Brazil and Canada, the voyage to occupy twenty-eight or twenty-nine days, and the contract to last for ten years. There was for some days in Rio a serious disturbance, owing to the imposition of an obnoxious personal tramway tax, which had to be substituted for one levied on the tramway companies.

As the year was closing, news arrived that vast phosphate deposits, valued at many millions of dollars, had been discovered on the Brazilian coast. Hitherto it was supposed that those persons having the control of the guano and nitrate beds in Peru and Bolivia virtually possessed a monopoly of those commodities, but it seems an American has been applying to the Brazilian

Government for a concession to collect and export phosphate deposits from Fernando, Noronha, and other islands on the coast to New York. Almost coincident with this news was the first arrival in Europe of guano from Tarapaca, under the sanction of the Chilean Government, for the benefit of Peruvian bondholders.

II. CHILI, PERU, AND BOLIVIA.

At the close of 1879 it was thought that the war which had been waging most of the year was about to terminate, and that terms would be arranged between the three countries through the friendly mediation of some neutral Power. This, however, was not to be. The talked-of mediation took no definite shape, and peace was, therefore, out of the question, as much from the prostrate condition of Peru as from the hard terms required by Chili. The former had suffered so severely that the continuance of the war could scarcely make her case more desperate than it was already. With Chili it was different, yet her financial exhaustion rendered her condition only less desperate. Her successes had been gained at a strain that jeopardised her credit and tried her resources to the utmost, so that her determination to fight on seemed rash and impolitic. The desultory manner in which the war was conducted during the early months of 1880 pointed to her necessity for breathing time, or she might have taken advantage of the discontent prevailing amongst the Peruvians against their own Government after the reverses at Iquique, Colores, and Tarapaca. In Peru the failure of the war had been attributed to the incapacity of President Prado, and the feeling grew so bitter that he was compelled to flee the country in December, and a revolution followed. It was short and sharp, and on the 22nd of that month, after a combat in which 60 men were killed and 200 wounded, Pierola was hailed Dictator of Peru. An outbreak against him in the following month was promptly suppressed and the leaders of the movement shot. Hostilities were resumed on February 27 by an attack on Arica by the Chilean ram "Huascar" and the corvette "Magallanes," the Peruvian forts and monitor "Manco Capac" responding vigorously. After the attack the latter vessel followed the "Huascar" to her anchorage, and for an hour or more fought her at 100 yards' range, killing her commander. The "Huascar," however, continued to bombard Arica daily for three hours, and a good deal of injury was inflicted on both sides. On one occasion the Peruvian corvette "Union" forced the blockade, and after seven hours' fighting with two Chilean ironclads, discharged her cargo of supplies and returned to Callao. Moquegua was occupied by the Chileans on March 20 without a blow, and this was followed by their winning a battle at Los Angeles and occupying Sorata.

In April Callao was blockaded by six Chilean steamers. A

panic ensued and the inhabitants fled, the garrison alone remaining. The bombardment of the place followed, much damage being caused by the shells of the "Huascar," whilst the injury inflicted on the Chileans was trifling. On May 25 the latter attacked the allied armies before Tacna, and after three days' fighting, defeated them, taking possession of the town and capturing eight cannon. The loss on both sides is said to have been 8,000. On June 7 Arica was impetuously attacked by the Chileans in the early morning. The attack had been expected by those within its walls, and energetic steps taken to repel it, but by a clever move the blow was delivered on the side of the town where it was not expected and least prepared. One fort was seized by a rush, then another, every soldier being bayoneted, and the fight was continued from street to street, until within three hours of the first shot, the Chilean flag was waving over the town. Some Peruvian officers and men had taken refuge in the British Consulate, but they were found by the Chileans and several shot, no quarter being given. Three or four rooms in the British Consulate were forced, and the contents stolen or destroyed, whilst the French, German, and Brazilian Consulates were sacked and the North American burnt. The soldiers were let loose in the city, and in the afternoon it was in flames; fortunately the women and children had been taken on board the foreign men-of-war earlier in the day and were saved. As soon as the captain of the Peruvian monitor, "Manco Capac," saw that the Chileans had captured Arica he opened the plugs in his vessel and sank her to prevent her falling into the hands of the enemy, he and his men escaping in the boats and surrendering to the Chilean ship "Italia." By the defeat at Arica the Southern army of Peru was exterminated. The attention of the Chileans was next concentrated on Callao and Lima. The Admiral of the Fleet blockading the former notified to the Diplomatic body that he intended to bombard Lima, allowing until July 8 for the departure of foreigners, women, and children. The city was prepared for a vigorous defence, and the Archbishop placed the treasure of his church at the disposal of the Peruvian Government. Pierola decreed that all men, with few exceptions, between the ages of sixteen and sixty should present themselves for drill, armed and in uniform, every day from eleven to two, all places of business being closed during those hours, and the men who did not comply were to be sent to join the active army. Whilst these preparations were going on within the city, the Peruvians succeeded in blowing up by means of torpedoes the Chilean transports "Loa" and "Amazonas." The former was a terrible affair; every house in Callao is said to have been shaken to its foundations, and every ship in the bay quivered as by an earthquake. The torpedo, which contained 300 lbs. of dynamite, wore the disguise of a fruit boat, of which there were always several about; when it came in contact with the "Loa," the latter was almost lifted out of the water by the force of the explosion and sank in eight

minutes, killing 150 men and leaving 40 more to be picked up by the boats of neutral vessels. A lull in hostilities ensued. Not that the Peruvians ceased from their efforts to render their capital as secure as possible, or that the Chilians in any way abandoned their intention to effect its capture, but rumours of peace produced inaction. It was announced early in September that, in consequence of the mediation of England, France, and Italy, the Governments of Chili and Peru had opened negotiations for the cessation of hostilities. The United States Government had previously offered to mediate in July, but notwithstanding the Chilean Minister at Washington had informed the United States Government that his Government would undoubtedly accept his mediation with a view to terminating the war, and correspondence had followed on the subject between the three Governments, no official notification of the acceptance had been received by the United States Government by the middle of September. The extravagance of the terms insisted on by Chili sufficed to let the war drag on. Desperate as the situation was, Peru could not bring herself to sign her death warrant as an existing State. Her future would not be worth having if she were to be absorbed in Bolivia, agree to the surrender of all the Bolivian coast on the Pacific, and allow Tarapaca to be held by Chili as a guarantee for payment of a war indemnity of 40,000,000*l*.

In the absence of any settlement the war was continued. Chimbote, north of Lima, was occupied by the Chilians on September 10. There not being a single Peruvian soldier in the place, of course no opposition was offered. Chorillos, the Brighton of Peru, Ancon, and Chancoy, all unfortified places, were bombarded by the Chilean fleet. It was whilst blockading the latter town that the Chilean corvette "*Coradonga*" was blown up by a torpedo, and it was out of revenge for this act that the above-mentioned defenceless places were bombarded by the Chilians, who were still sore about the loss of their two vessels "*Loa*" and "*Amazonas*." On October 29 Lynch, the Chilean leader, who is reported to have been at one time in the employ of the Peruvian Government, arrived at Callao with seven vessels, having completed a successful raiding expedition in the north of Lima. Several towns had paid the war contributions levied by him rather than suffer destruction, but many refused, and he had destroyed an immense amount of public and private property at Moussefu, Chielayo, Pinuntel, Lamboycke, and Patapo. Negotiations for peace were again set on foot by the United States Government in November, and a conference took place at Arica, the following terms being submitted by Chili:—

1. Cession to Chili of the Peruvian and Bolivian territories extending south of the Quebrada de Camarones and east of the line which, in the Cordillera of the Andes, separates Peru from Bolivia as far as the Quebrada de la Chacarilla, and to the west also of a line stretching from this point to the Argentine frontier, passing through the centre of the Lake Ascotan.

2. Payment to Chili by Peru and Bolivia, in coin, of the sum of 20,000,000 pesos, of which amount 4,000,000 pesos to be paid forthwith.

3. Restitution of the property of which Chilean enterprises and individual citizens had been divested by Peru and Bolivia.

4. Restoration of the transport "Rimac."

5. Abrogation of the Secret Treaty entered into between Peru and Bolivia in the year 1873; an engagement remaining without value or effect notwithstanding any steps taken with the object of establishing a Confederation between the two nations.

6. Retention by Chili of the territories of Moquegua, Tacna, and Arica, occupied by the Chilean forces, until such time as the preceding conditions should have been fulfilled.

7. Peru to be under obligation not to fortify the port of Arica when handed over to her, nor at any period, and to undertake that it should subsequently be exclusively a commercial port.

After a short discussion these terms were entirely refused by the Ambassadors of Peru and Bolivia, who in their turn proposed to place the whole matter in the hands of the United States Government for decision. This Chili declined, alleging that it was now too late for arbitration. As soon as it was known that the negotiations had failed, the Chileans proceeded to fit out with all haste a force of 10,000 men, to undertake with those already in the North the attack on Lima, and troops collected at Valparaiso from all parts of the country.

As the Chilean Government had been greatly harassed by a mob who would listen to no terms of peace until Lima should be taken by force of arms and the sunken vessels avenged, the failure of the envoys at Arica was opportune for those in power, for it quelled the excitement in Valparaiso and arrested a mob attack which was thought imminent. The war had never been so popular before, and men of all conditions were enlisting daily as common soldiers. In Lima, too, great activity and determination prevailed, Pierola infusing life and spirit into all about him. Judging by this and the supplies of Krupp cannon, Peabody rifles, Gatling guns, and French mitrailleuses, collected within the city, it appeared probable that Pierola's haughty answer to the demands of Chili would be literally and practically verified—"We will pay our ransom with lead alone."

On November 20 the Chilean army effected a landing at Pisco, a fortified place 100 miles south of Lima, at a loss of 450 men, the enemy losing 150, and continued its advance on Lima. On December 5 there was some duelling between torpedo boats off Callao, and the "Huascar," coming to the rescue of a disabled Chilean launch, was fired upon by the shore batteries and somewhat injured, one of her Armstrong guns exploding and killing several men. An attack on Lima appeared imminent as the year was closing, and she was evidently determined to resist to the utmost; it was even said that the place was surrounded by dynamite mines

to be used in the last extremity. The capture of the city does not, however, necessarily mean the extinction of Peru, for Pierola and his followers may make their way out at the back of the city and take refuge in the Andes, where in advantageous positions and with equal numbers they may defy the Chilians and tire them into granting some sort of terms.

III. ARGENTINE REPUBLIC. PARAGUAY. URUGUAY.

A few words may be useful to recall the situation and explain the state of public feeling prior to the outbreak in the spring of 1880. It will be remembered that the Republic is composed of fourteen provinces, or as it was once said in Congress, of Buenos Ayres and thirteen ranchos (mud huts), with a population of two millions, and an area of half a million square miles. Buenos Ayres, one of these provinces, has developed and risen in importance out of all proportion to the others. With one-fourth of the population and producing four-fifths of the revenue of the whole Republic, she was reluctant to be represented in the Senate on equal terms with those provinces that added nothing to the national exchequer but yet had the same rights of representation. So too, these other provinces were jealous of the ascendancy of Buenos Ayres, but were at the same time as determined she should not secede from the union as she was eager to break loose. The feeling on the part of Buenos Ayres was intensified by the heavy and unequal taxation with which she was burdened. Her unfortunate inhabitants paid 9*l.* per head to the National Government, 4*l.* to the Provincial Government, and nearly 2*l.* to the Municipal Council, or, in other words, they contributed thirty-five times as much per head as the Upper Provinces. Her anxiety to be rid of what she considered superfluous government may therefore be easily understood, and the Presidential Election in the approaching autumn, when President Avellaneda's term of office would expire, seemed to offer a good opportunity for shaking off the yoke and asserting her independence. When early in the year it became evident from the preliminary poll held for the choice of electors, that the National party was decidedly the strongest, Buenos Ayres determined to make a fight for it under the guidance of a presidential candidate, who was in favour of secession and averse to the city of Buenos Ayres being made the capital of the Republic. Her choice was Governor Tejedor, who also obtained the vote of the province of Corrientes, whilst General Roca, the rival President elect, had secured the votes of the other twelve provinces. News reached Europe towards the end of June that a revolution had broken out in Buenos Ayres, ostensibly caused by a contest for the President's chair, that the city was besieged, and the port blockaded. There was every indication of a stubborn and sanguinary struggle between the Provincial troops under Governor Tejedor, who held the city,

and the National troops under General Roca, who were besieging it. Each side gained one slight success (June 22 and 24), and these were the only two occasions on which there was actual fighting. The city was surrounded by the National troops and summoned to capitulate within twenty-four hours. An armistice followed, negotiations were opened, and terms of peace arranged on June 30, as follows: Governor Tejedor to tender his resignation to the Provincial Chambers, and the Vice-Governor, who played an important part in the negotiations, to assume office. The National troops to lay down their arms, and all the troops of Buenos Ayres to deliver up their arms, which were to be deposited in the Parque. The National Government to return with its Ministers and functionaries to the capital, which President Avellaneda would enter, accompanied only by the number of troops which the National Government always maintained in the city. Each party to bear its own war expenses. The National Government not to interfere in any way with the local legislation in the province of Buenos Ayres.

While these arrangements were being gradually carried out, the Legislature of the National authorities appear to have acted with some asperity towards Buenos Ayres, which they regarded as a conquered rebel province, and, as such, having no voice in any of the proceedings. Harsh measures were urged; the seats of the forty deputies who remained in Buenos Ayres when hostilities broke out, were declared vacant, and were to be filled up by new elections, and the National Congress, having in view the acquisition of Buenos Ayres as the capital of the Argentine Republic, a measure opposed by the local legislature, insisted on the Provincial Chambers being closed. This was done by the military, but without bloodshed, and Congress assumed the legislative functions of the abolished Chambers. President Avellaneda, disapproving of such strong measures, resigned, but Congress by sixty-two votes to two refused to accept his resignation, and he withdrew it. Matters then proceeded smoothly, and after the surrender to the National Government of the Correntino army, 7,000 strong, and the flight into Paraguay of the Governor and Ministers of Corrientes, the revolution was entirely suppressed. President Avellaneda returned to National Government House, Buenos Ayres, with his Ministers from Belgrano, the temporary capital of the Republic, exactly fifty days after he left the town, when the outbreak began, and this may be regarded as the fall of the curtain on the political drama of the recent rebellion and the opening of a new era for the country. There were several changes in the local administration of Buenos Ayres, and the new elections for the Provincial Chambers, which had been recently closed by the military, resulted in the return of a majority of deputies favourable to the National Government. On October 12, President Avellaneda completed his term of office, and General Roca was installed as President of the Republic amid great public rejoicings.

His inaugural address was moderate, but he was firm in the purpose to make Buenos Ayres the capital of the Republic, subject only to the National powers. His chief ideas were care for the army and navy and for ways of communication, and he hoped to carry the railways in three years to their natural termini in the north, east, and west. He also proposed to continue military operations against the Indians. Obedience to the laws would be strictly enforced, the obligations towards foreign commerce held sacred, and the service of the debts attended to as a duty involving the national honour. On the organisation of the new Buenos Ayres Legislature, the government of the province was handed over to Señor Romero, President of the Provincial Senate. On December 8, General Roca took formal possession of Buenos Ayres as the permanent capital of the Republic, and Ensenada was spoken of as likely to be selected as the capital of the province.

There was an animated discussion on the capital question in the Provincial Legislature lasting over a week, and when at last a division was taken, there were only four dissentient voices against this important question. President Roca was said to be very popular, and showed great activity in promoting everything connected with the material interests of his country. In financial matters he was ably supported by Señor Cortines, who remitted 40,000*l.* to Europe to meet the coupons on Argentine bonds, and also ordered the payment of 120,000 *dols.* on account of the guarantee due to the East Argentine Railway. The latter had been completed as far as Ceibo, the Western Railway to Ayacucho was opened for traffic on November 1, 500 navvies were at work on the Mendoza line, and a new railway was to be constructed to Santiago del Estero. The Government was evidently convinced of the necessity of rapid railway extension. Estancia lands were in great demand, and were bought up rapidly by wealthy native capitalists and foreigners, particularly Englishmen. Immigration was increasing, 6,000 emigrants having landed in November as against a previous monthly average of 3,000, and it is said that Irish tenant-farmers anxious to obtain possession of land, as owners of the soil, would receive a hospitable welcome from the inhabitants of the Republic. The wheat harvest promised to be the best ever known, and was expected to realise four millions sterling, whilst the cultivation of sugar in Tucuman was making immense strides in advance, and was likely to prove a profitable industry; there were also nine sugar factories in the province of Salta, and eight in Jujug. Trade generally was prosperous and active, and for the first time in its history, National stock had reached par.

The present prosperity and the bright prospects of the Argentine Republic are attributed in a very great measure to the personal and upright conduct of Ex-President Avellaneda. His determination not to temporise or repudiate at a time when the country was passing through a prolonged crisis, and his insistence on the strict payment of national obligations, in spite of the

counsel of friends and the promptings of convenience, undoubtedly laid the basis of the high credit the country now enjoys. When his term of office expired on October 12, and he retired into private life to resume his practice as a lawyer and the editorship of the *Republica*, the people showed their appreciation of his past services by accompanying him in their thousands to his home.

On July 19 there was a worse storm at Buenos Ayres than any since 1865, though the loss of life was small. The streets were deep in water, families had to be rescued from their wooden houses in boats, and thirty horses were drowned in the streets. Two months later there was a terrific snowstorm throughout the province of Buenos Ayres, which lasted three days and nights, and was the worst ever known. The loss of horned cattle was put down at a million, whilst 500,000 sheep and 250,000 horses also perished, the poor beasts being found dead in piles, all mixed together from having sought shelter from one another. Great scarcity of butcher's meat followed, and prices rose enormously. The Republic received an important addition to its navy during the year in a steel armour-clad corvette, built in England and launched on October 4. She is 240 feet long and 50 wide, her displacement tonnage being 4,200 tons, and her speed twelve knots an hour with one engine, or 13½ with both. Her armour is chiefly of two thicknesses, six and nine inches. She has a central battery carrying six guns of eight inches calibre, and weighing 11½ tons each, a similar gun being carried forward and another aft, whilst there are six smaller guns on the upper deck. She will take coal sufficient for steaming 4,000 miles. In November, the Government obtained four batteries of Krupp cannon, bought from the Belgian Government, and the Argentine army now possesses 220 field pieces of modern type, and some batteries of mortars have been ordered for coast defence. The Exhibition at Buenos Ayres, which was postponed in consequence of the Presidential Election and the disturbances that ensued, will be held in 1881, and will be of an international character, instead of being confined, as originally intended, to South American products.

From a statement issued to Congress as a message by the retiring President Avellaneda, the expenditure for 1881 is estimated at 20,207,851 hard dols., showing a slight increase over that of 1880, whilst the ways and means are put down at 20,611,441, also showing a slight increase over that of 1880, the taxes remaining as before.

Apart from the empire of Brazil, the war between Chili and Peru, and the revolution in the Argentine Republic, of which separate notices have been given, there was little in South America to excite interest in Europe, except the scheme for uniting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by means of the Panama Canal. Paraguay has prospered under the popular rule of Caballero, who was elected President in September on the death of General Barrero, and a treaty of friendship was signed with Spain. The credit of

the country too stands higher, which is perhaps the best proof of substantial improvement. Her internal condition, of course, remains unchanged. The little work that is done at all is done by the women, whilst the men pass their time in horse-racing, cock-fighting, and card-playing. Education is ignored, and religion regarded rather as an amusement than a rule of life. Marriage is dispensed with to such an extent that out of fifty candidates for the priesthood in the newly-established National College, only two were able to produce evidence of their legitimate birth. In Uruguay there were two or three changes of Ministry early in the year without the usual disturbances, but a dispute has arisen with the Argentine Republic in consequence of some subjects of the latter being maltreated and forced into the Uruguayan army. The Government of Uruguay subsequently demanded the dismissal of the Chancellor of the Argentine Legation because he had published some comments on the matter, but the demand was refused. Cuestas has succeeded Penalva as Finance Minister, and the deficit for 1880 is estimated in the Budget at 1,780,000 pesos. It is proposed to issue Treasury Bills and to increase the import duties. Great distress is said to prevail among the widows depending on Government pensions, as they have not been paid since May, and on November 3 the Minister of Marine and War was so mobbed he had to promise them orders for payment. As a set-off to the confusion of the public finances, the accounts about the wool clip and the prospects of the wheat crop could not be better. Ecuador and Venezuela have made some progress, and doubtless an uneventful year was better for them than one of greater excitement. The event in which Europe is most concerned has been the actual start of the Panama Canal scheme. The change from the lukewarmness that attended the announcement of the venture early in the year to the enthusiasm which greeted it later on when presented in a practical form, is due to the personal influence and character of M. de Lesseps. In the interval he had not only contrived to diminish considerably the opposition of the American public and convince them of the practicability of his scheme, but he had secured the services of Mr. Thompson, the Secretary of the United States Navy, as chairman of the American branch of the Company, that gentleman resigning his official berth to accept the post. The capital of the Universal Inter-Oceanic Canal Company, as it is styled, is 12,000,000*l*. In December 590,000 shares of 20*l*. each were offered at par for subscription in Europe and America, 5 per cent. interest to be paid out of capital while the works are under construction, the remaining 10,000 shares being given to the society of original grantees for the concessions and surveys made by M. de Lesseps. The whole of the shares were taken up with unexpected eagerness, not only in England, France and other European countries, but also in the United States, and the first batch of engineers and workmen was to leave Paris during the first week of 1881, with a view to commence operations imme-

diately. Though seventy-five years of age, M. de Lesseps continued to take the most active interest in his undertaking, and was even more sanguine of success than he was of the Suez Canal. He calculated that 8,000 men might construct the canal, which will be forty-six miles in length, in six years (the Suez Canal is 110 miles in length), the necessary machinery occupying a year and half to make, and there being no engineering difficulties in the way of construction. Others estimated twelve years. Opinion differed as to whether this great enterprise was likely to pay eventually, but time and the development of the South American Republics can alone solve the question. It will no doubt bring this country into more direct communication with New Zealand and the Fiji Islands; the dangerous navigation of the Southern Seas will be avoided; and it will open up commerce along the western coast of America. It is not so certain, however, that the Panama Canal will divert the general stream of traffic between England and the Antipodes from its present course; for, whilst the distance between London and Sydney is nearly the same *viâ* Panama or *viâ* Suez, the steamers of the Orient Company now perform the voyage round the Cape in as short a time, and avoid the heavy charges of transit through the Canal. The immediate effect of commencing the Canal will be to give an impetus to trade in Mexico, Central America, the neighbouring South American States, and the West Indies, and advantages will follow from the attraction of labour and capital to the scene of operations.

At the close of the year most of the low-priced South American securities were in favour in the London market, and the projected Panama Canal was already spoken of as full of promise.

CHAPTER X.

AUSTRALASIA.

I. VICTORIA.

THE political history of Victoria during the past year was marked by such extraordinary fluctuations in public opinion that we have to look beyond the questions immediately before the constituencies for some explanation for the inconsistencies which appear on the surface. For the last seven years the question of Constitutional Reform had more or less occupied attention; and the necessity of preventing, if possible, the recurrence of deadlocks by bringing the Upper House, or Legislative Council, more into accord with public opinion, had been admitted by the leaders of both parties. Mr. Graham Berry, and the party he represented, were returned at the General Election in 1877 by large majorities, for the special purpose of settling this question. Ineffectual attempts had been made to obtain the consent of Parliament to a Bill by which matters at issue between the two houses should be submitted to a *plebiscitum*, and early in 1879 an embassy, consisting of Mr. Graham Berry and Professor Pearson, a member of the Legislative Assembly, was dispatched to England with a view of conferring with the Imperial authorities upon the subject, and to obtain, if possible, an enabling Act by which certain alterations in the Constitution of the Colony might be effected on the sole authority of the popular branch of the Legislature. This mission proved a failure, the Home authorities declining to interfere in what they deemed a purely party question, and one which the responsible Government of the Colony was bound to deal with in a legal and constitutional manner. Parliament reassembled on June 20, 1879, and the Governor's speech notified that at the earliest possible moment the Ministry would again submit a measure dealing with the question of Constitutional Reform. The object of the Bill would be to secure the final adjustment of the legislative functions of both Houses of Parliament, and thus terminate the frequent recurrence of deadlock and protracted legislative delays, which in the past had proved so disastrous to the prosperity of the Colony. The Bill was brought in on July 22, the Premier explaining its principal provisions: viz., 1st—that immediately a resolution from the Committee of Supply had been reported to and adopted by the Assembly, the money granted by the resolutions should be legally available; 2nd—that the Constitution of the Council should be so altered as to render it a nominated instead of an elective chamber; and 3rd—that in all cases when a Bill had been passed by the Assembly and rejected by the Council in two consecutive annual sessions, it should then be submitted to the

people for their decision by means of a *plebiscitum*. After a lengthened debate, the second reading of the Bill was carried on September 25, by fifty to twenty-eight votes. In committee, the clause defining when money should be legally available was amended by the insertion of a proviso that an Appropriation or Supply Bill must first be rejected by the Legislative Council or left unpassed for one month before a resolution could be proposed in the Assembly to render money voted legally available. The third reading of the Bill was carried by forty-three votes to twenty-eight, but as the absolute majority of the House was required, the measure was practically lost, and was withdrawn by the Government. Mr. Berry then applied to the Governor for a dissolution, which was granted, on the understanding that the appeal to the country should be made with no unnecessary delay.

It was under these circumstances that the year opened and Parliament reassembled after Christmas, on January 20, and, having passed the Estimates and Appropriation Bill, was dissolved on February 9. The elections for the New Parliament took place on the 28th of the same month. The programmes submitted by the party leaders differed on material points, but the question of Constitutional Reform was recognised by both as the test question before the electors. Mr. Berry's programme included the withdrawal of the nominee principle proposed in the Bill of 1879, the *plebiscitum* and the claim under which money might be made legally available by the vote of the Assembly alone being the initial features of the new measure. The Opposition leader, Mr. James Service, contented himself with denouncing the introduction of the *plebiscitum* as dangerous and foreign to the ideas of a British Constitution, and affirming that the second portion of Mr. Berry's scheme could only be regarded as a proposal to establish a financial despotism in favour of a partisan majority in the House, ignoring at the same time the claims of the Council and the minority in the Assembly. The result of the appeal to the country was the defeat of Mr. Berry's Administration, the Opposition securing forty-nine seats as against thirty-seven won by the Ministerialists. One member of the Ministry—the Attorney-General, Sir Bryan O'Loughlan,—only was defeated. Immediately the results of the polling became officially known Mr. Berry tendered his resignation, and Mr. James Service, the leader of the Opposition, formed the following Ministry: President and Treasurer, James Service; Chief Secretary and Minister of Education, Robert Ramsey; Attorney-General, G. B. Kerferd; Minister of Justice, John Madden; Minister of Railways, Duncan Gillies; Minister of Lands, John Gavan Duffy; Minister of Public Works, Thomas Bent; Commissioner of Customs and Postmaster-General, Henry Cuthbert; seats in the Cabinet without office, J. G. Francis and R. S. Anderson. Some surprise was expressed by both parties at the *personnel* of the Service Administration, but their re-election was unopposed. The Premier, in addressing his constituents at Malden

early in March, indicated the policy he intended to pursue on the Reform question. The *plebiscitum* was to be set aside, and harmony of action between the two Chambers would be sought by endeavouring to popularise the Upper House by reducing the qualification of electors and members. A rather startling statement was made at the same time with regard to the position of the finances, Mr. Service computing the deficiency in the estimated revenue at no less than 644,000*l.*, or equivalent to about 33 per cent. of the entire revenue derived from taxation. Parliament did not meet immediately after the elections as first intended, nor was it convened until May 11. This apparent reluctance on the part of the new Ministry to face discussion was decidedly unpopular; their short tenure of office may be traced to a want of tact rather than to grave mistakes. The postponement of the meeting of Parliament in face of a large declared deficit in the revenue was an instance of the former. On the date mentioned, the new Assembly was sworn in, Sir Charles MacMahon was elected Speaker, and on the 12th the Governor delivered the usual speech, announcing that the Reform Bill would be immediately introduced, and promising certain other measures of local importance. On May 20, Mr. Service brought in his Reform Bill, the chief features of which were a reduction in the franchise to 10*l.* for freeholders and 20*l.* for leaseholders, and of members of the Council to a freehold property of an annual value of 150*l.* in lieu of 250*l.* as previously in force. The existing provinces were to be subdivided, and the number of members of the Legislative Council increased to forty-two, and the period of office for new members to be for six instead of ten years. A Bill for the payment of members was introduced into the Assembly by a private member (Mr. H. R. Williams, one of the representatives of Mandurang), which obtained on its second reading a majority of fourteen. The measure was subsequently "stonewalled" in Committee and lapsed. The second reading of the Service Reform Bill was moved on June 1 by the Premier, and after a discussion which lasted until the 25th, was negatived by a majority of two—forty-three members voting against the Bill and forty-one for it. The Ministry decided to recommend that the Assembly should again be dissolved. His Excellency the Governor, after requiring that the reasons for this advice should be reduced to writing, accepted the advice of his Ministers, and Parliament was prorogued on the 26th, and the Assembly dissolved on the 29th. One of the conditions upon which the dissolution had been granted was that the new Parliament should meet as early as practicable. The nominations were fixed for July 9, when seven members, all belonging to the Ministerial party, were returned unopposed. The general elections took place on July 14, and resulted in a complete reversal of the popular vote of the February previous, the Service party securing only thirty-five seats, including the seven members returned unopposed, out of a House of eighty-six members. The defeat of

the Ministerial party was due without doubt, in some measure, to the Catholic vote being given for their opponents; but as their success in February arose from their having the support of that body on that occasion, their weakness in the country without it was apparent. The withdrawal of Sir John O'Shanassy, the acknowledged leader of the Catholic party in Victoria, was due to the refusal of Mr. Service to make certain concessions in the existing Education Act, which from a religious standpoint the Romish priesthood considered prejudicial to their freedom of action in the matter of education. Contrary to the practice now usually adopted, Mr. Service, instead of at once placing his resignation in the hands of the Governor when the country had decided against him, decided to meet Parliament, which was opened on July 22 by Commission. Immediately after the election of Speaker (Mr. Peter Lalor, Minister of Trade and Customs in the previous Berry Administration), and prior to the delivery of the usual Governor's speech, Mr. Berry, the leader of the Opposition, gave notice of a motion of want of confidence, and despite the efforts of the Ministry to show that such a proceeding was unconstitutional and without precedent, the majority of the House decided that the question should be discussed on the following day. A short sitting was accordingly held at the time appointed, and a resolution to the effect that "the House takes the earliest opportunity of informing His Excellency that his advisers do not possess the confidence of Parliament," was carried without a division. No notice was, however, taken of this resolution by Mr. Service, who regarded it as irregular; and on the 28th Parliament was opened in the usual way, the only difference being that the Governor's speech was simply of a formal character. On the Address in reply an amendment was moved, which was carried by forty-eight votes to thirty-five, and on the following day the Service Administration resigned. The Governor having sent for Mr. Berry, great efforts were made to effect a coalition between the Liberals and the moderate Conservatives, with a view of forming a stable Government which would give satisfaction to the general community. These efforts, however, proved fruitless, the hostility of the irreconcilable faction of the Conservatives on the one hand, and the demands made by the Catholic party on the other, tending to keep alive those party animosities which the majority of people desired in the welfare of the country to see buried. The failure of negotiations between the Moderates resulted finally in Mr. Berry being obliged to select his Cabinet exclusively from his own party with the following result: Chief Secretary and Treasurer, Mr. Graham Berry; Attorney General and Minister of Justice, Mr. W. M. K. Vale; Minister of Education, Major Smith; Minister of Railways, Mr. J. B. Patterson; Minister of Lands, Mr. R. Richardson; Minister of Public Works, Mr. G. D. Langridge; Commissioner of Trade and Customs, Mr. A. T. Clark; Minister of Mines, Mr. H. R. Williams; Cabinet Ministers with portfolios,

Professor Pearson, M.L.A., and Mr. R. D. Read, M.L.C. Parliament adjourned until August 31 for the Ministerial re-election; Messrs. Berry, Vale, Richardson, and Williams were all opposed, but although extraordinary efforts were made to secure their defeat, and the fact that the Catholic vote was this time recorded against them, they were all re-elected. Parliament reassembled on September 1, and Mr. Berry announced his intention of pursuing a policy of extreme moderation. A Reform Bill was promised upon the lines laid down on a platform accepted by the constituencies at the recent general election; and a Bill for the payment of members was passed by the Assembly without delay and forwarded to the Legislative Council. The latter body, although declining to entertain the principle for paying the members of a Chamber holding property qualifications, agreed to accept the wish of the majority that the members of the Lower House should be remunerated. A conference ensued.

Unlike its predecessors, 1880 opened with more than usually satisfactory prospects of prosperity. The principal staple of export, wool, had advanced considerably in value in the European markets, and a large harvest was promised, which, coupled with the high rates ruling in England, would ensure the farmer a good return. For the first time in her history Victoria was entitled to figure as an exporting wheat country, the grain yield of the Colony being about equal to 120,000 tons in excess of local requirements. Shipments commenced early in January, and continued to be made up to the close of April, several cargoes being forwarded by steamer direct. Coupled with these two important improvements in the export trade, money was cheaper and more plentiful, and business operations once more began to assume a hopeful look. Intelligence was received early in February that the Australian frozen meat shipped by the steamer "Strathleven" had reached London in good condition, and had given satisfaction. A movement was immediately set on foot to extend this business, and two companies have since been formed with the special object of opening up a regular and permanent trade in Australian frozen meat for the European market.

An International Exhibition, on a scale hitherto unattempted in Australia, was opened on October 1 in Melbourne by the Governor, assisted by the Governors of the sister colonies. The United Kingdom was represented by his Grace the Duke of Manchester and Sir Herbert Sandford. Representatives were also present from Germany, France, Austria, Italy, the United States, Switzerland, and the other States which took part in the Exhibition. The exhibits of primary interest were those shown by the Australian colonies, marking as they did the extraordinary advance made within the last quarter of a century in the development of the industrial and natural resources of a continent which, prior to that date, was almost a *terra incognita* to a large portion of the outside world. The exhibits of wool, grain, and other farm products,

illustrated the suitability of the soil and climate for both pastoral and agricultural enterprise, and afforded to the intending settler the practical proof of how the investment of his labour and capital was likely to be rewarded. In the Victoria section alone 200 samples of wheat, flour, and grain were shown, the former equal in quality to the finest samples of European and American growth.

Gipps Land Aboriginal Station (Anandurk) divided honours with Tasmania in the production of hops, experts adjudging those of Messrs. Shoobridge and Co. from the latter island to be equal in quality to those of far-famed Kent. The collection of Victorian wines was large, whilst the additional exhibits of New South Wales and South Australia in this class brought into great prominence an industry which in the immediate future is likely to assume considerable proportions in the history of the Australian export trade. But whilst the products of the farm, field, and vineyard formed an important feature in the first "World's Show" in the Southern Hemisphere, the display of manufactures was highly creditable. The tweeds, shawls, and flannels of the local mills vied for finish and make with the best European goods, though the purity of the woollen goods was due, perhaps, to the fact that the staple was locally cheaper than the "shoddy" used abroad. The machinery annexe afforded proof that the local factories were able to turn out an ample supply of the heavier class of implements and machines in every way suitable to the requirements of the colonist. Light goods, however, had seemingly claimed less attention, their production by Sheffield and Birmingham at such low prices making the idea of competition for the present hopeless. Queensland had some fine exhibits of sugar, an industry which in that colony is already assuming extensive proportions, the crop of 1880 being set down at 10,000 tons. Fiji, which may be regarded now as an annexe of Australia, also showed sugars, cotton, and coffee, in quantity and quality sufficient to indicate that a repetition on a small scale of the West Indies may be found in this new group of British possessions in the South Seas. The advance of Australia in the manufacture of what may be termed luxuries was another feature of the present Exhibition, the display of oilmen's stores, jams, preserved fruits, biscuits, confectionery, and the hundred and one little articles which make up the list of household necessities being unusually large. Considering that only a little more than ten years ago the colonists depended solely upon importations from abroad to supply their wants in this direction, it may be regarded as a convincing proof that even in its narrower channels industrial development has not lagged.

The Exhibition was situated almost in the centre of Melbourne, occupying a site in Carlton Gardens where it covered more than twenty acres of ground. The main building was intended to be permanent, and was built of brick faced with cement. The annexes were constructed of timber, and roofed with corrugated

iron. Some idea of the floor space afforded to exhibitors may be gathered from the following figures:—In the main building, Great Britain occupied 11,850 feet; Germany, 8,558 feet; France, 9,800 feet; Italy, 5,725 feet. Under the dome, Victoria, 9,000 feet; America, 5,000 feet; India, 4,426 feet; New South Wales, 2,050 feet. The annexes were divided by an avenue from the south to the north end 20 feet wide, terminating at the fernery; on the western side, Austria occupied 18,375 feet; Italy, 22,050 feet; Germany, 36,668 feet; France, 55,125 feet; Great Britain, 64,407 feet; and on the eastern side of the avenue the United States exhibits covered 34,800 feet; Switzerland, 3,450 feet; Holland, 5,175 feet; Belgium, 13,750 feet; Japan, 5,000 feet; Queensland, 8,000 feet; New Zealand, 8,000 feet; South Australia, 5,695 feet; West Australia, 2,000 feet; Tasmania, 2,200 feet; New South Wales, 14,764 feet; Victoria, 84,962 feet; Fiji, 1,370 feet; and Ceylon and West Indies covered 2,000 feet. The machinery halls were also extensive. In the Fitzroy Hall—Victorian exhibits covered 30,717 feet; Great Britain, 37,854 feet. In the Carlton Hall—France occupied 10,500 feet; Germany, 9,937 feet; United States, 15,000 feet; Belgium, 3,044 feet; South Australia, 2,000 feet; New South Wales, 2,945 feet; Holland, 1,125 feet; Italy, 1,226 feet; New Zealand, 500 feet. A special annexe was erected by Germany, of an area of 950 feet, at the north end of the Carlton Machinery Hall, for showing some special exhibits of that empire.

The year 1880 was marked by great additions to the financial resources and liabilities of the Australian colonies, as shown by the following figures:—

	£
Victorian loan	2,000,000
New Zealand loan	5,000,000
Queensland loan	3,000,000
South Australian loan	3,250,000
Various public works loans	750,000
New financial companies, &c.	3,000,000
Increase in value of grain shipments	3,000,000
Increase in value of wool clip	2,500,000
Making together the sum of	£22,500,000

II. NEW SOUTH WALES.

The progress of this colony has been commensurate during the past year with the strides made by its neighbours. Perhaps it would be nearer the truth if to New South Wales the palm of prosperity during the past five years were accorded. Doubtless this is due to the fact that industrial and mercantile pursuits, and the development of local resources, have absorbed public attention to the exclusion of politics. The older colony has not yet arrived at that point in its history for party questions to assume, as they do in Victoria, such an importance as to overshadow the ordinary routine of daily life. It must not, however, be supposed

that New South Wales is likely in the future to be free from political excitement ; on the contrary, there have been during 1880 unmistakable signs that sooner or later a crisis, similar to that which Victoria has passed through, will have to be endured. The two antagonistic elements to the existing order of things are to be found : first, amongst the “ free selectors,” who viewed the appropriation of huge territories by the squatters with indignation ; and secondly, amongst the coal-owners, who resent what they deem to be an interference with the rights of labour in regard to the system of working the pits. A serious strike occurred during 1879, which was only terminated by timely concessions on the part of the masters, and a good deal of bad blood still survived between the Unions and the pit-owners which might produce serious results. At present the “ free selectors ” confine their efforts to agitating for the remission of their back rents, and securing candidates for the coming general election favourable to their views regarding the settlement of the country. Taking the experience of the other colonies as a guide for what will probably follow, 1881 will see the struggle of the squatter against the cultivator renewed in all its intensity in New South Wales. The battle must be a long one, but in the end there cannot be a doubt that public opinion will decide against the advisability of the appropriation of land into large estates for wool-growing purposes to the exclusion of the selector, who proposes to earn a living out of the cultivation of the soil.

Amongst the industries which have of late made considerable strides in the colony are those of sugar, tobacco, and wine. The former is produced in the Northern districts of the Clarence, and is now assuming considerable proportions, although the recent crop has been seriously injured by the heavy frost which occurred during July. Tobacco is freely grown in the Hunter River district, but it is doubtful, except where Chinese labour is employed, whether it can be made a really profitable pursuit. New South Wales wines have already assumed an outside celebrity, and very considerable improvement has of late been made in the production both of light wines partaking of the Rhenish character, as well as others of a stronger description allied to the produce of Spain. Vine-culture in this colony has already attained very considerable proportions, and a united effort on the part of the Australian wine-growing districts is to be made to bring their produce more conspicuously before European consumers. The recent alteration in the Imperial duties in regard to the amounts levied upon wines under a certain alcoholic strength, if carried out in their entirety, would materially assist the development of the trade.

Like its neighbour, Victoria, New South Wales lately held an International Exhibition, which was opened on September 17, 1879, and closed on April 20, 1880. Although from a pecuniary standpoint the Exhibition was not a success, regarded as an educational medium and as making as it were a fresh departure in the indus-

trial progress of the colony, it amply fulfilled the anticipations of its projectors. The Garden Palace, as the building was called, was placed so as specially to attract the attention of visitors to the magnificent natural scenery of Sydney Harbour. The structure was in the form of a Latin cross, the length of nave being 800 feet, with a transept of 500 feet; the area covered, including gallery space, amounted to seven and a half acres. Great prominence in this Exhibition was given to the exhibits of foreign countries, the collection of which was large and good. The attendance in proportion to the population was the largest on record in connection with similar exhibitions, amounting to 1,045,898, or 143 per cent., whilst at Paris the proportion was only 43 per cent., and at Philadelphia 22½ per cent.

During 1880 an amended Education Bill was passed, which placed the primary schools under a Minister of Public Instruction. It also provided for the establishment of high and grammar schools for both sexes throughout the colony. The Bill, however, met with considerable opposition from the Roman Catholic priesthood, who in all the Australian colonies are strenuously fighting against the system of free, secular, and compulsory education.

There was a considerable shrinkage in the revenue of the colony during the year, but as this was due to the reduction in the sale of land a recovery may be anticipated. The Treasurer, however, deemed it necessary, in view of the increasing expenditure, to impose new taxation. The scheme first presented to Parliament included export duties on wool and coal, excise on tobacco and beer, and a stamp tax; the latter was adopted, but very material alterations were made in other portions of the Budget scheme, the export duties and the excise on beer being abandoned. The frozen meat trade with Europe attracted considerable attention, and both the pastoral and mercantile representatives combined to take steps to give practical force to the results obtained from the "Strathleven" experiment. The export of Australian meat to the United Kingdom, it was expected, would materially add to the wealth of the colony and sensibly improve the value of its large sheep runs and cattle stations.

The latest mark of the colony's advance was the opening of the railway to Albury, thus virtually connecting the two capitals of Sydney and Melbourne by the iron road. There are about 900 miles of rail open in the colony, and some 800 in course of construction. Sydney has lately adopted steam tramways for street traffic, and is thus so far ahead of the other colonies. Owing to the extension of its railway system, the export trade in wool from Sydney has largely increased during the present year. The system, however, adopted both by Victoria and New South Wales, in competing for the wool trade of Riverina by reducing their railway charges to a minimum, is not one which will commend itself to the outside public. Sydney, as the terminus of the Orient Line, of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, and of other large

lines of steamers trading to Europe, with its splendid harbour accommodation, offers special advantages to shippers, for the geographical position of Melbourne, although reducing the distance of land carriage one-half, cannot compete with her rival without inflicting a loss on the revenue by a reduction in the mileage rates paid for the carriage of goods. Moreover, both colonies have lowered the rate on the State railways for long-distance goods, so that the trade leaves already an actual loss.

The Chinese labour question occupied a good deal of public attention during the year, and furnished one of the topics for discussion by the Intercolonial Congress held at Melbourne on November 26. The other matters treated upon by the representatives of New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia were the question of border treaty, thus abolishing the present objectionable practice of collecting duties on the inland border of each colony, and the postal service with Europe.

III. SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

South Australia, up to the present time, has been the wheat-producing centre of the Australian colonies, and although of late years Victoria has made considerable strides in the cultivation of this cereal, the former colony still maintains her foremost position as the exporting market of Australia. The shipments of South Australian wheat and flour to the European and other markets in 1880 amounted to close on 300,000 tons. The wheat yield per acre of the colony was small, averaging only $9\frac{1}{2}$ bushels. But it must not be forgotten that little labour is bestowed on its production, and that draining the land is almost wholly unknown. The result of continual cropping without applying the necessary restorative dressings is likely to affect the wheat production of this colony in the market value to a considerable extent. The cultivation of the vine and olive during the last few years has, however, materially increased, and a large industry is likely to grow to considerable dimensions. The vintage of 1879 gave 200 gallons to the acre of wine; the area planted being about 4,500 acres. Olive oil is being manufactured freely, and promises to be successful. In addition to these industries, currant and raisin makers are making considerable strides. Indeed, the whole of the fruits grown in Southern Europe thrive remarkably in South Australia. The mineral resources continue to be developed satisfactorily, but the fall in the export price of copper—the principal metal shipped to Europe—has materially affected the value of some of the mines.

Although this colony is known as South Australia, its limits reach northward to the extremity of the Australian continent. The settlement formed at Port Darwin in connection with the trans-continental telegraphic line and cable from Java, has grown in proportion considerably of late. About 200,000 square miles have been taken up for pastoral settlement, and the Government

have lately offered considerable inducements for the cultivation of sugar-cane, rice, and other tropical products. The position of the colony—being in the 26th parallel of south latitude—is eminently fitted for their growth. The population of the Northern Territory was returned at 400 whites, 30 Malays, and 2,040 Chinese, but the latter have largely increased since the latest official return, and cannot number less than 5,000 in all. Several disturbances occurred during October between the whites and the Chinese, and it will be necessary, if their free introduction continues, to take special steps to restrain the growing jealousy of the two races.

The Port of Adelaide (the capital of the colony) has gained rather an unenviable distinction during the present year by the disasters which have occurred to ocean steamers visiting the port, in addition to several vessels taking the ground. The fine steamer "Sorata," of the Orient Line, was stranded during the month of September in the Back Stair Passage. Parliament has, however, promoted the construction of extra lighthouses, which, with better harbour accommodation in Holdfast Bay, will, it is hoped, obviate similar disasters in the future.

The political history of South Australia has upon the whole been a quiet one, and though the anticipations derived from platform utterances prior to its election have not been fulfilled, still a fair amount of legislation has been got through. An amended Land Bill was passed, granting further time to selectors to complete their purchases, and a Settled Estates Bill, providing means for dealing with entailed lands.

IV. QUEENSLAND.

The enormous area which this colony covers is, it will be observed, but partially settled; still, during the last decade, considerable progress has been made in all the districts which fringe the seaboard. The northern portion of the colony is unsuitable for European labour, but in the southern the climate is sufficiently temperate to be compatible with active outdoor work. Agriculture, however, is confined in a great measure to an inland plateau called the Darling Downs, which, from the richness of soil and a fine climate—caused by its situation above sea-level—makes the district suitable for the growth of cereal crops. Very good samples of chevalier barley have been sent to the markets of the other colonies by the farmers of the Darling Downs; but up to the present year, owing to constant recurrence of rust, the wheat crop, as a whole, has not been successful. The harvest of 1880 promised, however, a far better outturn; and round Warwick—the centre of wheat-growing districts—the yield was large. On the lower-lying lands towards the sea-coast fruits of all descriptions, and semi-tropical products, grow luxuriantly. The cultivation of the sugar-cane is very largely extending; the approximate output for the year April 1, 1879, to March 31, 1880, was returned

at 18,200 tons, or about 4,500 tons above that of previous year. For 1880–81 the output is estimated at 21,000 tons. The area under crop has largely increased, but owing to droughts and frosts the yield has been short. Queensland sugar finds a ready market in New South Wales and Victoria. An attempt has been made on a small scale to grow coffee. As a matter of experiment this has been successful, but it is doubtful whether, in the absence of a plentiful supply of Asiatic labour, its cultivation would prove a financial success. Wool-growing and cattle-breeding form the great industry of the colony at present. The export of the former is regularly increasing, whilst the demand for fat cattle for the southern markets is also annually improving. During the year serious efforts were made to establish a Frozen Meat Company for the export of Queensland beef and mutton to England, and with fair prospects of success.

The mining industry showed signs of improvement. The late drought, however, interfered with the work on the alluvial finds of both gold and tin. The political record of 1880 in Queensland is a stormy one, the strong Opposition in the House of Assembly rendering legislation almost impracticable. The present Ministry, of which Mr. M'Ilwraith is Premier, is regarded as a squatting administration, and is opposed by the party who are assumed to represent the centres of population. Continued deadlocks have occurred over the ratification of a contract for the conveyance of the mails to Europe *via* Torres Straits, and an action for damages has been taken against the Premier for sitting in Parliament whilst he was pecuniarily interested in a contract to bring out immigrants. The matter is still before the law courts, having been adjourned until May 1881, to enable the defendant to take evidence on commission to England. The railway service of Queensland covers 428 miles open for traffic, and Parliament recently agreed to the extension of several lines on the land compensation system.

V. NEW ZEALAND.

As the colony of New Zealand is attracting a larger number of immigrants yearly than any other of the colonies of the Australasian group, its population is increasing with great rapidity. The native population numbers about 42,000, of which the greater proportion are to be found in the Northern Island, where, divided into tribes, they still occupy partially a large tract of country. Being of a restless nature, they are more or less constantly in collision with the European settlers. During the past year apprehensions of an outbreak were experienced, owing to the persistent policy of two or three of the tribes interfering with the operations of the Government surveyors employed in laying out roads in the lands recently proclaimed for occupation. About 200 natives were arrested, but no overt act of violence was committed.

The financial position of the colony occupied very considerable attention throughout the year. When Sir George Grey left office, it was decided that the lavish expenditure in connection with almost every department had landed the colony in debt to the extent of nearly a million sterling. With a view of restoring the financial equilibrium, the local expenditure was reduced to its narrowest limits, and Major Atkinson reimposed the excise duty on beer, and also had to resort to further taxation. Although from these Acts the Hall Ministry cannot be regarded as popular, still their evident desire shown to re-establish the public credit won for them a certain amount of support which, whilst securing them an absolute majority in Parliament, also broke up the Opposition into factions.

The enormous growth of agriculture in New Zealand necessitated fresh markets being sought for the producer. Formerly the Australian markets absorbed the largest proportion of her surplus, but during 1880 shipments of wheat, oats, and barley were not only made upon a most extensive scale to the United Kingdom, but cargoes were despatched to the Cape of Good Hope and other minor ports. The average corn-yield of New Zealand is larger than any of the Australian colonies, being 27·62 bushels to the acre of wheat, 30·11 bushels of oats, 24·76 bushels of barley, and 4·98 tons of potatoes. The demand for agricultural land continued very active even in face of some most depressing accounts as to the competition of other grain-growing countries in the world's market. An illustration of how this class of land is run after was given on October 28, when, at the first sale of land in the Waimate Plains—a district where the natives are very troublesome—the average price obtained was 7*l.* per acre in deferred payments, and 6*l.* per acre for cash. The land was of good quality, well watered, and intersected by a metalled road. As the colony of New Zealand is the only one which keeps up a system of immigration on a large scale, the necessity of planting the fast-increasing adult population on the soil forms a centre-point in the policy of the Government. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that the financial success at Hawera in disposing of the Waimate lands was followed by a very important decision in native affairs. Although no actual change of policy was involved, a new departure was determined on, which may be fraught with very pronounced results as regards the future of the Maories. The Government decided, early in November, to proceed with the whole of the survey of the Parihaka block, with the exception of the strip of land opposite to Parihaka, which was reserved, under the recommendation of the West Coast Royal Commission, for the natives. The reasons which actuated the Government in arriving at this decision appear to have been twofold: first, to teach the natives a lesson once and for all that the question of the ownership of this land is settled irretrievably; and, secondly, to provide new openings for the settlement of this land by Euro-

peans. The planting in of a numerous colony of whites in the very heart of this disaffected district will, it is believed, thoroughly prove to Te Whiti's followers the uselessness of their struggle against the constituted authorities. The survey of the Parihaka will be conducted under the protection of the armed constabulary, and if the natives attempt any interference with the survey and sale of the land, they are to receive a prompt and sharp lesson, which will effectually preclude, it is expected, any chance of such opposition being repeated. It is extremely probable that the native difficulty will attain considerable prominence during the next year, and doubtless it was with this in view that the present Ministry were urged to take prompt measures at the first sign of an outbreak. The Governor consented that the "Maori Prisoners' Act" should be extended for another three months from the close of October. In Waikato there were signs of disquietude, and the natives were disputing the possession of Hora-Hora with the tenant who purchased the block of land from the Crown. The peculiarity of this opposition to the Government was, that the women, dressed in their fighting costumes, viz. chemises, were prepared to dispute possession. Major Kemp, whose name has for years been prominently mixed up with native affairs, formally took possession of all the land belonging to the West Coast natives, and as the chiefs of Putiki recognise his leadership, a pacific solution is looked for.

The removal of Sir Julius Vogel from the post of Agent-General, or rather his choice to retain his private business in preference to his official position, took no one by surprise; his successor, Sir F. D. Bell, having been a prominent member of the Legislative Council up to the time of his appointment to the Agent-Generalship, was looked upon as more in accord with the economical policy of the present Government than his predecessor.

Although during the earlier portion of the year trade throughout the colony was dull and depressed, it closed with brighter prospects. The internal resources of both islands are enormous. Time, however, will be required to properly develop them, and economy and prudence will have to go hand in hand with the efforts of the local Government to stimulate progress. The policy followed by Sir George Grey was attended by lavish and indiscriminate expenditure, which, for a time, seemed destined to check the progress of the colony, but these symptoms are now fast disappearing.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS THE FINANCIAL POSITION OF THE VARIOUS AUSTRALIAN COLONIES AT THE BEGINNING OF 1880 :—

	Name of Colony						Total	New Zealand	Total for Australasian Colonies
	New South Wales	Victoria	South Australia	Queensland	Tasmania	Western Australia			
Area in square miles	310,937½	88,198	380,070	669,520	26,215	1,000,000	2,474,940½	105,342	2,580,282½
Estimated mean population of 1879	714,012	888,500	253,087	214,180	111,208	28,668*	2,211,655	448,124	2,659,779
Revenue of 1879	4,475,059½	4,621,520½†	1,662,498½	1,461,824½	375,367½	196,815½	12,792,588½	3,134,905½	15,927,488½
Proportion of revenue of 1879, raised by taxation	1,272,791½	1,730,088½	526,366½	631,389½	236,404½	88,330½	4,485,198½	1,441,898½	5,927,086½
Rate of taxation per head of population	1½ 15s. 7½d.	1½ 19s. 4½d.	2½ 1s. 3d.	2½ 18s. 11½d.	2½ 2s. 6d.	3½ 1s. 7½d.	2½ 0s. 8½d.	3½ 4s. 4d.	2½ 4s. 8½d.
Value of imports for 1879	14,198,847½	15,035,538½	5,014,150½	3,080,889½	1,267,475½	407,299½	39,004,198½	8,374,589½	47,378,788½
Value of imports per head of the population	19½ 17s. 8½d.	16½ 18s. 5½d.	19½ 13s. 1½d.	14½ 17s. 8½d.	11½ 7s. 11½d.	14½ 4s. 1½d.	17½ 12s. 8½d.	18½ 13s. 9d.	17½ 16s. 3d.
Value of exports for 1879	13,086,819½	12,454,170½	4,762,727½	3,434,034½	1,301,097½	494,889½	35,533,730½	5,743,126½	41,276,856½
Value of exports per head of the population	18½ 6s. 6½d.	14½ 0s. 4d.	18½ 13s. 5d.	16½ 0s. 8d.	11½ 13s. 11½d.	17½ 5s. 3d.	16½ 1s. 3½d.	12½ 16s. 3½d.	15½ 10s. 4½d.
Total value of trade imports and exports	27,285,666½	27,489,708½	9,776,877½	6,514,923½	2,568,572½	902,182½	74,537,928½	14,117,711½	88,655,639½
Value of trade per head of the population	38½ 4s. 3½d.	30½ 18s. 9½d.	38½ 6s. 6½d.	30½ 8s. 4½d.	23½ 1s. 11d.	31½ 9s. 4½d.	38½ 14s. 0½d.	10½ 0½d.	39½ 6s. 7½d.
Miles of railway open, Dec. 31, 1879	736	1,125	559	503	172½	72	31,67½	1,171	4,338½
Miles of railway in course of construction, Dec. 31, 1879	286	744	252½	805	—	194	987½	—	987½
Miles of telegraph lines open, Dec. 31, 1879	7,517½	3,155	4,893½	5,871	731	1,568½	23,236½	3,605	26,841½
Miles of telegraph wire open, Dec. 31, 1879	12,426	5,736	5,384	7,891	949	1,580½	34,516½	9,300	43,816½
Miles of telegraph in course of construction, Dec. 31, 1879 :—									
Length of lines, miles	497½	23	850	—	14	3½	1,388½	—	1,388½
Length of wire "	497½	47	1,010	—	14	7	1,576½	—	1,576½
Number of acres under crop in 1879	635,641	1,688,275	2,271,058	101,032	156,184	65,491½	4,917,701½	2,218,782½	7,136,483½
Number of horses in 1879	860,038	216,710	130,052	163,083	24,578	32,411	926,872	187,768	1,064,640
Number of cattle in 1879	2,914,210	1,129,358	266,217	2,800,683	129,091	60,617	7,300,126	578,430	7,878,556
Number of sheep in 1879	29,043,392	8,651,775	6,140,396	6,065,094	1,854,441	1,109,860	52,844,898	13,069,038	65,914,236
Number of pigs in 1879	256,026	144,733	90,548	64,686	38,312	20,397	614,702	307,337	822,039
Estimated population on December 31, 1879	734,289	899,338	259,287	217,851	112,469	28,668	2,251,800	463,729	2,715,519
Public Debt on December 31, 1879	14,937,419½	20,050,758½	6,605,750½	10,196,150½	1,786,800½	361,000½	53,937,872½	23,958,311½	77,896,183½
Rate of indebtedness per head of population	20½ 6s. 10½d.	22½ 5s. 10½d.	25½ 9s. 6½d.	46½ 16s. 0½d.	15½ 7s. 8½d.	12½ 11s. 10½d.	23½ 19s. 0½d.	51½ 13s. 8½d.	28½ 18s. 8½d.

* Population on Dec. 31.
† This rate has been calculated according to the mean population of the financial year ended June 30, 1879.
‡ Includes 1,406,018 acres after having been broken up, including such as in hay, but exclusive of 1,986,381 acres of grass-down land, which had not previously been broken up.
§ According to the returns of March, 1878.

OF

THE total of new books published in 1880 is almost absolutely identical with that of the previous year, but its component parts show very considerable variations. Works of history, travel, as well as poetry, show a slight falling off; but the diminution in the supply of theological, educational, and technical books is more marked. The number of new novels published in 1879 was 607, and 406 new editions of novels already in circulation, as compared with scarcely more than half as many in 1880; on the other hand, of juvenile works and tales 153 only were new, and only 61 were new editions; art publications, illustrated works, and year-books were, however, more in favour.

The following summary shows the actual literary activity of the year :—

The Collects of the Day: an Exposition &c. By Ed. Meyrick Goulburn, D.D. Dean of Norwich. 2 vols. (Rivingtons).—These lectures, originally delivered in Norwich Cathedral, supply a want, both popular and special, which by some strange oversight has hitherto been almost entirely overlooked. Our clergy are so accustomed to look to the Bible alone for subjects for explanation and texts for exhortation, that our Liturgy runs the danger of

falling into unintelligent use. As a text-book of devotion, the Book of Common Prayer offers the richest materials, and the wonder is that a methodical exposition of its contents does not enter into the regular duties of our clergy. Dean Goulburn's contribution to the history and import of the collects is therefore to be doubly prized ; arousing special interest in well-known words, and showing the way to fresh fields for meditation. The word Collect as we now understand it is a barbarism, and indeed its original meaning is a little obscure, unless we are ready to accept Archdeacon Freeman's definition, that it was intended to collect and condense the devotional thought suggested by the Epistle and Gospel with which it is associated. Of course, this definition fails when, as we constantly do throughout the Prayer Book, we find Collects wholly distinct from any such adjuncts. Many subtle interpretations of the word, when used in such places, have been put forward, for which the curious cannot do better than refer to Dean Goulburn, who summarises the friendly contest which has been carried on round this word. Their place of origin is more easily decided. They come to us through the translators and revisers of our Book of Common Prayer, from the Sacramentary of Leo the Great, to whom personally we probably owe at least seven of those still in use, viz., those for the third Sunday after Easter, and the fifth, ninth, tenth, twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth Sundays after Trinity. These are therefore, at least, not less than fourteen hundred years old. In the collects of Leo the Great, or in those of Pope Gelasius who lived half a century later, we find traces of the political history of the times when Attila, Genseric, and Theodoric were by turns devastating the Western world, and the Church alone was putting up her prayers that the world might be peaceably ordered. But it is to Gregory the Great that we are indebted for by far the largest number of the collects now used in the Church of England, and it is worthy of notice that the Pope to whom the Church owes so much both of her music and her prayers is the one whose pitifulness was aroused by the Angles in the Roman slave-market. From various sources the collects were at length gathered together, and the compilation known as the Use of Sarum has been generally as the text-book of Cranmer and the reformers made their translations. The history of the alterations in the collects (chiefly verbal, but in some cases going to the extent of entire omission) is followed step by step by Dean Goulburn, who then takes each collect *seriatim*, comparing its present form with the original, explaining the meaning of the alterations introduced, and then examines the practical lesson which each inculcates. He is strong in impressing upon his readers that the common idea that a collect is a mere expression of devotional fervour must be dismissed from the mind, and in proving that each of these holy epigrams is full of moral stimulus and of daily application.

The Gifts of Civilisation, and other Sermons. By R. W. Church. (Macmillan and Co.)—This is a volume of sermons delivered by the Dean of St. Paul's in that cathedral, and at St. Mary's, Oxford. The qualities for which Dean Church is already known to be distinguished as a writer of sermons are not wanting here ; simplicity, earnestness, close reasoning, and a quiet beauty of language are as remarkable in these as in his former works. The lecture on the Roman civilisation, which follows the introductory sermon, strikes out the thought that no civilisation, however brilliant, is worthy of that name in its truest sense, in which every man does not fulfil his duties as *man* to society : that man is the true object of civilisation, and not the circumstances and

appliances, however convenient or complex, which surround his life. Dean Church appreciates at its just value the civilisation of Greece, with its exalted idea of citizenship, and assigns a high place to that of Rome, which produced good as well as great men, with grand views of human life and human responsibility. The next lecture explains how the new religious enthusiasm of Christianity took the place of the Roman civilisation as the old Roman ideal and public spirit gradually declined. In the two lectures on the Sacred Poetry of Early Religions there are some interesting paragraphs on the Vedic hymnology, but the grand "natural religion" of the Psalms is ranked high above all other sacred poetry for the true devotional sentiment, the majesty of conception, the moral beauty and yearning affection, which have endeared these songs of David to people of every shade of belief in every age.

Sceptical Fallacies. By W. J. Hall. (Rivingtons.)—This little book is, as the author tells us, "an attempt to place in the hands of busy people some brief and popular, yet sufficient answers to the current and common objections which are industriously made against the faith which still prevails among us." The refutation of all the tenets of the various philosophical schools, from Descartes downwards, that are contrary to the doctrines of Christianity, is a task of considerable magnitude, and one that necessitates a metaphysical subtlety of language which may possibly render parts of the work unintelligible to those for whom it is specially intended. But Mr. Hall has spared no pains in the compilation and arrangement of his book, and supports his arguments by quotations from authors so various as Jeremy Taylor and Mr. Mallock, as Dr. Johnstone and James Hinton; and if but few will be able to follow his reasoning on such vast subjects as the Divine Omniscience, which are beyond the grasp of man's intelligence, many devout Christians will read with pleasure the chapters on the Immortality of the Soul and the Philosophy of Prayer.

Characteristics and Motives of the Christian Life. By W. J. Knox Little. (Rivingtons.)—A series of Sermons preached in Manchester Cathedral, and published "in accordance with the request of many who believe that they have found them helpful." They are in no sense remarkable, doctrinal rather than practical, and characterised by an uniform and orthodox mediocrity.

Some Helps for School Life. By J. Percival. (Rivingtons.)—This volume is a selection of the sermons preached by the late Head Master of Clifton College during the first sixteen years of its existence, and is "intended specially for those who are already familiar with the life of the College and its round of teaching." These are therefore entirely practical, and as they are remarkable for thoughtfulness and simplicity of style, will find favour with many who hold different shades of belief. The book is a proof that the traditional culture and refinement of the Anglican clergy is not yet extinct, and as such will be welcome to all devout Churchmen.

The Human Race, and other Sermons. By the late F. W. Robertson. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—The sweepings of the desks of even so great a man and so deservedly popular a writer as the late Frederic Robertson, hardly ever bring to light much that is worthy of being drawn from the oblivion to which the author had consigned them. Fragmentary, however, as are most of the sermons published in the volume now before us, they contain abundant instances of the singular freshness and originality of thought, of the earnest simple eloquence, of the practical piety by which his other works are placed

far above the average sermon. A very few addresses now published for the first time are entire : these will be hailed with delight by those who have already found in his former writings the most stable, satisfactory form of religious teaching which the nineteenth century has given.

After Death. An Examination of Primitive Times respecting the state of the Faithful Dead and their relationship to the Living. By H. M. Luckock. (Rivingtons.)—Dr. Luckock's work is strictly of a devotional character, though in saying this we would not imply that the intellectual element is wanting, and the execution of the work is careful and scholarly. The book deals with three questions about which Western Christendom has been much agitated, namely, the efficacy of prayers for the dead, the existence of an intermediate state, and the lawfulness of the Invocation of Saints. These are discussed with candour and fairness, on their merits and on the evidence applicable to them. The Inscriptions in the Catacombs are fully treated, and in fact the work is a review of almost all the existing literature on a subject that attracts great attention among all devout people.

Spinoza : his Life and Philosophy. By Frederick Pollock. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—It is of Spinoza's philosophy, as we should have expected, that this work really treats, and indeed nearly all that is known of his life is summed up in the curious little tract by Colerus which is reprinted in the appendix, of which the English version appeared in 1706. Mr. Pollock gives us the result of some years' careful study in this admirable and exhaustive summary of Spinoza's works, of which no complete English translation has been published, although it is said that the MS. of a translation by "George Eliot" is in existence. The book is not intended merely for those who have made philosophy their special study, and will be read with interest by any thoughtful and intelligent reader. The noble words in which Mr. Pollock sums up his estimate of the great philosopher are more likely to induce people to turn to the book itself than any praise which we can bestow upon it. "His aim was, not to leave behind him disciples pledged to the letter of his teaching, but to lead men to think with him by teaching them to think for themselves. . . . We who have thus far endeavoured, however imperfectly, to follow the workings of Spinoza's mind, and to explain his thoughts in the language of our own time, honour him even more for that which he suggested, seeing the far-off dawn of new truths as in a vision, than for that which his hands made perfect."

English Thought in the Eighteenth Century. By Leslie Stephen. (Smith, Elder and Co.)—The value and importance of this work claim for it a notice here, although second editions do not, strictly speaking, fall within our province. It presents a detailed and systematic account of the tendencies of the religious, political, and moral movements and discussions in all the various schools of English thought, from the revolution of 1688 to the opening years of the present century. The deist controversy—the chief product of eighteenth century theology, is fully described, with all the general theological tendencies of the age, "and [we are quoting from the preface] in order to set forth intelligibly the ideas which shaped those tendencies, it seemed desirable again to trace their origin in the philosophy of the time, and to show their application in other departments of speculation. I have therefore begun with an account of the contemporary philosophy, though, in repeating a thrice-told tale, I have endeavoured to be as brief as was compatible with my purpose. Further, I have tried to indicate the

application of the principles accepted in philosophy and theology to moral and political questions, and their reflection in the imaginative literature of the time." In this last province Mr. Stephen is more than ordinarily successful. His literary faculty is, as is well known, of the very highest order, and the chapters on the poets, novelists, and pamphleteers of the day, are interesting and suggestive in the extreme. The chapters on political theories and political economy are lucid and full of matter, and as the author has kept as far as possible from the province of political and social history, they can be studied advantageously by those who, well read in the facts of history, are desirous of learning something about the ideas and theories of the actors, and still more of the spectators who filled the theatre of Europe in the eighteenth century.

Economic Studies. By Walter Bagehot. (Longmans and Co.)—These posthumous essays by a writer who is such an authority on the subject are interesting and valuable, although it is evident that they are not so complete as they would have been made had the author lived. In the first and most finished of the series, the *Postulates of Political Economy*, Mr. Bagehot sets forth with his customary perspicuity the position held by English political economy, and wherein it differs from foreign systems, and then passes on to the consideration of its two fundamental principles, "that within the limits of a nation labour migrates from employment to employment, as increased remuneration attracts or decreased remuneration repels it; and that capital flows or tends to flow to trades of which the profits are high; that it leaves or tends to leave those in which the profits are low; and that in consequence there is a tendency to an equality of profits through commerce." The next paper, the *Preliminaries of Political Economy*, is a short account of the history and nature of the science, which, says Mr. Bagehot, "though victorious, wants the prestige of victory; though rich in results, its credit is not quite so good on that account as it ought to be." The papers on Adam Smith, Malthus, and Ricardo are those most likely to interest the general reader; while the last, that on the *Cost of Production*, is too obviously fragmentary and unfinished to claim the attention of any but the special students of the subject, to whom even the notes of an authority who combines practical experience with scientific study are of considerable value.

Lectures on German Thought. By Karl Hillebrand. (Longmans and Co.)—These lectures, delivered at the Royal Institution, contain a history of German intellectual life and thought, concise, and of course not exhaustive, yet detailed enough for the general public for whom they are intended. They begin with the dawn of German philosophy in the time of Herder, and bring us down to the present day. An introductory paper shows the part which the five great European nations successively held in the works of modern culture, and a second describes the state of Germany after the Thirty Years' War, and traces the steps of her social and political progress until 1760, the date when the first great founders of her national culture made their appearance. Herr Hillebrand points out one great and fundamental difference between the history of Germany and that of other nations which caused her to develop latest, and to be entrusted last in order with the task of handing on to posterity the torch of intellectual life. "All European nations can boast of a continuous development from the Middle Ages to the nineteenth century. . . Not so Germany. The Thirty Years' War made a gap in her national development such as we find nowhere else in history. It threw her back full two

hundred years, materially and intellectually, and extinguished all remembrance of the past. And what it destroyed in this way was not a barbarous country, it was an old civilisation." Herr Hillebrand goes on to show how the two springs around which the new life gathered and grew up, were the "enlightened despotism" of the Prussian State and the Protestant religion, and how the influence of a superior foreign literature first awoke the desire of a richer intellectual life in Germany. Space will not allow us to follow our author in his able *exposé* of the influence wrought and the position held in turns by the successive generations of Klopstock and Kant, of Herder and Goethe, of Schlegel, Humboldt, Tieck, and Rahel, and for which we refer our readers to Herr Hillebrand himself. Perhaps the most interesting chapter is that on the Romantic School of Germany, which reacting against the too exclusive Hellenism of Goethe and Müller, collected the popular songs and fairy tales, republished the *Nibelungen*, brought Dante again into honour, and with him all the minor mediæval poets of the South.

Island Life. By A. R. Wallace. (Macmillan and Co.)—The present volume, by one of our greatest authorities on biological science, is, as stated in the preface "the result of four years' additional thought and research on the lines laid down in the author's 'Geographical Distribution' of Animals and may be considered as a popular supplement to and completion of that work." The first part is devoted to the explanation of the mode of distribution, variation, modification, and dispersal of species and groups, illustrated by facts and examples; of the true nature of geological change as affecting continents and islands; of changes of climate, their nature, causes, and effects; of the duration of geological time and the rate of organic development. Dr. Wallace then proceeds to apply the principles established to the interpretation of the phenomena presented by some of the more important and best-known islands of our globe. "Islands," he says, "possess many advantages for the study of the laws of distribution. As compared with continents, they have a restricted area and definite boundaries, and in most cases their biological and geographical limits coincide. The number of species and of genera they contain is always much smaller than in the case of continents, and their peculiar species and groups are usually well defined and strictly limited in range." The work embraces a wide field of facts and theories, but though it may appear at first sight somewhat fragmentary and disconnected, it is really the development of one principal and definite theory and its application to the solution of a number of biological problems: namely, that the distribution of the various species and groups of living things over the earth's surface and their aggregation in definite assemblages in certain areas is the direct result and outcome of complex sets of causes which may be grouped as "biological" and "physical." The biological causes are the constant tendency of all organisms to increase in numbers and occupy a wider area; and secondly, those laws of evolution and extinction which determine the manner in which groups of organisms arise and grow, reach their maximum, and then dwindle away, often breaking up into separate portions which long survive in very remote parts of the globe. The physical causes are—first, the geographical changes which at one time isolate a whole fauna and flora, at another time lead to their dispersal and intermixture with adjacent faunas and floras; and secondly, the changes of climate which have occurred in various parts of the earth. The first part of the work is probably that which contains the more interesting matter to the general reader; but the second part,

devoted to the subject which Dr. Wallace has made the study of his life—the classification of the faunas and floras of the islands of the globe, which he places in accordance with their physical origin in three groups or classes—is a valuable addition to the existing treatises on biology.

Life and her Children. By Miss Buckley. (Edward Stanford.)—Miss Buckley's former scientific books for children are so well known, that the excellence of the present volume is no surprise to us. Her methods of presenting certain facts and phenomena difficult for the mind of a child to grasp are original and striking, and admirably calculated to enable the youthful reader to realise the truth. The main object of the work before us is "to acquaint young people with the structure and habits of the lower forms of life; and to do this in a more systematic way than is usual in ordinary works on Natural History, and more simply than in text-books on Zoology." Miss Buckley has been careful to sketch in bold outline the leading features of each division, rather than to dwell upon the minor differences by which it is separated into groups, and the whole is remarkable for fulness and accuracy. The book abounds with beautifully engraved and thoroughly appropriate illustrations; those of the marine animals are drawn by Dr. Wild, artist of the "Challenger expedition," and those of the insects by Mr. Edward Wilson; the work is one which people who are no longer young may take up with pleasure and read with profit, and which will be prized by every boy and girl who is fortunate enough to get it and intelligent enough to master its teaching.

The Hibbert Lectures, 1880. By Ernest Renan, of the French Academy. (Williams and Norgate.)—These are a series of historical sketches on the influence of the Institutions, Thought, and Culture of Rome on Christianity, and the Development of the Catholic Church. In four lectures, which lose something of their charm in print, and yet more from the necessary inadequacy of any translation, however good, to reproduce the beauty of the style in the original, M. Renan explains in what sense Christianity was the work of Rome; relates the legend of the Church of that city, exhibits Rome as the centre of growing ecclesiastical authority, and shows the various agencies which gradually built up the vast fabric of the Church,—political and social position, organising talent, force of discipline, and "policy which never recoils from fraud." These lectures contain little new matter, but they serve to present to English readers an epitome of M. Renan's longer and more elaborate works on the same subject.

The Poetry of Astronomy. By Richard A. Proctor. (Smith, Elder and Co.)—These papers, reprinted with additions from the *Cornhill*, *Belgravia*, and the *Contemporary*, are "a series of familiar essays on the heavenly bodies, regarded less in their strictly scientific aspect than as suggesting thoughts respecting infinities of time and space, of variety, of vitality, and of development." They attempt to present the facts of the most poetical of all the sciences in an attractive and popular form, and though those who prefer to read their science without too much admixture of eloquence may occasionally be annoyed by Mr. Proctor's rhapsodies, his work is likely to be acceptable to that class of readers for whom it is especially intended.

Introduction to the Science of Language. By A. H. Sayce. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—The author of this work is very well known as one of our most eminent philologists, and his familiarity with the early forms of human speech in the Assyrian and Indian literatures, as well as with living dialects, qualifies him to write on this subject with an authority second to

none. The object of the work, as stated in the Preface, is an attempt to give a systematic account of the Science of Language, its nature, its progress, and its aims, which shall be at the same time as thorough and exhaustive as our present knowledge and materials allow." It may therefore be regarded as a supplement to Prof. Max Müller's well-known book on the science of language, while Prof. Sayce's knowledge of Continental literature and the great progress which of late years has been made in classifying and interpreting Assyrian inscriptions, place the present work considerably in advance of its predecessors. A thorough knowledge of acoustics and of phonology also enables the author to deal with the deeper problems connected with the human voice. Prof. Sayce affirms that there is a point where articulated language passes into those inarticulate efforts to speak out of which it originally rose, and touching the oft-mooted question whether speech be a gift or the inevitable natural accompaniment of reason, and how far it is conventional and created by social necessity, the author is strongly of opinion that it is arbitrary, the invention or creation of man, and has undertaken—the faculty of language being conceded—to search the modes of its origin and development. The first chapter, which is of the nature of an historical sketch, gives a full account of the history of grammar writing, which began in Babylonia in very early times. It is impossible, however, to follow Prof. Sayce through the whole of his long, and, it must be confessed, somewhat difficult work. The last chapters of vol. ii. upon "Comparative Philology" and the "Origin of Language" are among the most interesting, and the whole treatise, extremely valuable in spite of its abstruseness, forms a contribution to Philology which is not likely for many years to have a rival in the field.

English Trees and Tree Planting. By William H. Ablett. (Smith, Elder and Co.)—This book is somewhat more of a scientific work than its popular title suggests. But the knowledge it imparts is valuable to those whose interest in trees is of a practical kind, since it treats not only of the produce of trees and the industries which depend upon them, but also of their cultivation, diseases, rate of growth, duration, and the conditions under which they best flourish. The first three chapters give an account of ancient forest and tree planting, then follow chapters on coniferous trees, and then the broad-leaved trees. The last part of the work treats of trees that grow best in moist soil, the formation of plantations, osier-beds, hedge-rows, and copses.

Health. By W. H. Corfield. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—This is a republication of lectures delivered at the rooms of the Society of Arts. They are full of interest and of useful practical hints. The earlier lectures are devoted to elementary physiology, which necessarily precedes a study of the laws of health, and the five last treat of Drinking Water, Climate, Houses and Towns, Small-pox and communicable diseases. All are as little technical as possible, and are eminently calculated to fulfil the purpose for which they were delivered and subsequently published, namely, the diffusion of the knowledge of those natural laws upon which the life and well-being of all of us depend, and by the violation of which, through ignorance, the national health is daily impaired.

Ballads and other Poems. By Alfred Tennyson. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—This is a volume to be taken up with pleasure at any time and by any reader, so various are its contents. The Sonnets—not perhaps the form in which the Laureate shows to the greatest advantage—are four in number ;

that to Victor Hugo being on the whole the most satisfactory. There is a translation of the passage in the *Iliad* which narrates the storming of the Trojan trench by Achilles, and another of an old poem of which a prose translation by the poet's son appeared in the *Contemporary Review* of Nov. 1876, called "The Battle of Brunanburh"—interesting chiefly for its quaint metre. "The Revenge" and the "Defence of Lucknow" have both been published before; but their reappearance will be pardoned by the most uncompromising enemy of "Jingoism" in consideration of the nervous ring of the verse. The last-named is preceded by a dedicatory poem to the late Princess Alice, which is very fine of its kind.

In the "First Quarrel," a widow relates to the doctor who is attending her sick child, the story of the early love of herself and her husband, of his long absence and their subsequent marriage, of how she discovered evidence of his attachment to another woman, of the quarrel that ensued and of their angry parting. The poem is full of tender pathos. The conclusion shall be told in Mr. Tennyson's own lines:—

" ' You said that you hated me, Ellen, but that isn't true, you know ;
I am going to leave you a bit—you'll kiss me before I go ?'
' Going ! you're going to her—kiss her—if you will,' I said,—
I was near my time wi' the boy, I must ha' been light i' my head—
' I had sooner be cursed than kissed.' I didn't know well what I meant,
But I turned my face from *him*, an' he turned *his* face an' he went.

And then he sent me a letter, ' I've gotten my work to do ;
You wouldn't kiss me, my lass, an' I never loved any but you ;
I am sorry for all the quarrel an' sorry for what she wrote,
I ha' six weeks' work in Jersey, an' go to-night by the boat.'

An' the wind began to rise, an' I thought of him out at sea,
An' I felt I had been to blame ; he was always kind to me.

' Wait a little, my lass, I am sure it 'ill all come right ;'

An' the boat went down that night—the boat went down that night."

" Rizpah " is a tragic story told by a dying woman, of how her son, urged on by wild associates, had robbed the mail, not for plunder, but from sheer daring, and had been hanged in chains for the deed. She had become insane in consequence, and been confined in an asylum : but when released had collected her son's bones, to bury them in consecrated ground :

" I kiss'd 'em, I buried 'em all—

I can't dig deep, I am old—in the night by the churchyard wall.

My Willy will rise up whole when the trumpet of judgment 'll sound,

But I charge you never to say that I laid him in holy ground."

It would be hard in the whole range of the Laureate's work to select anything more grandly pathetic than this poem, or one with which a skilful reader might produce a more powerful impression. Unfortunately, quotation is almost impossible, without mutilating a perfect whole. Two pieces—"The Northern Cobbler" and "The Village Wife, or the Entail"—are in the Lincolnshire dialect, already immortalised by Mr. Tennyson. The former—the better of the two—is the story of a reformed drunkard who keeps in his window, as a memorial of his conversion, a bottle of gin which he refuses on any account to open, and which he intends shall be buried with him.

"In the Children's Hospital" is a touching account by a hospital nurse

of the last hours of a sick child, in the same metre as *Rizpah*; but scarcely so powerful. "*Sir John Oldcastle*" and "*Columbus*" may be described as dramatic idylls, the Laureate having somewhat caught the influence of Mr. Browning's late manner. "*The Voyage of Maeldune*," is a very spirited ballad, founded on an old Irish legend. Maeldune, whose father has been slain by an enemy living "in an isle in the ocean" gathered together his fellows and sails to avenge his death. The varied scenes through which the expedition passes are vividly described, until they come to the isle of a saint who persuades them to abandon the *vendetta*. Whether the poet intends or not to point a special moral, the saint's recommendation might well be taken to heart in the present day as it was by Maeldune.

Dramatic Idylls. Second Series. By Robert Browning. (Smith, Elder and Co.).—The six idylls comprised in this little volume compare in one respect favourably, in another unfavourably, with the companion series published in 1879. Many of the earlier stories are morbid, even ghastly, but the execution is as a rule more pleasing and freer from the eccentricities of rhyme and metre which here disfigure Mr. Browning's powerful verse in a manner sorely trying to the patience even of his greatest admirers. Two, the first and last idylls, are drawn from classical sources. "*Echetlos*" is the story of an unknown hero who performs prodigies of valour at the battle of Marathon, armed with nothing more than a ploughshare. When the battle is won and honours are distributed, he is nowhere to be found, and the oracle appealed to for his name replies :—

"Care for no name at all;

Say but just this : we praise one helpful whom we call

The holder of the ploughshare. The great deed ne'er grows small."

"*Pan and Luna*" is an expansion of a fable alluded to in the third book of the *Georgics*. According to Mr. Browning's version of the story, the moon, ashamed of exhibiting her charms in a clear sky, plunges into a fleecy cloud which Pan had craftily placed there to betray her :

"As when a pearl slips lost in the thin foam
Churned on a sea-shore, and, o'erfrothed, conceits
Herself safe-housed in Amphitrite's dome,—
If, through the bladdery wave-worked yeast, she meets
What most she loathes and leaps from, elf from gnome
No gladlier,—finds that safest of retreats
Bubbles about a treacherous hand wide ope
To grasp her—(divers who pick pearls so grope)
So laid this maid-moon clasped around and caught
By rough red Pan, the god of all that teach."

"*Clive*" tells to an old friend, as the moment of his life when he felt most fear, the story of a duel of his early days. An officer with whom he had been playing, and whom he denounced as a cheat, challenges him. Olive fires first, and misses, and his antagonist, who as the conditions allow has reserved his fire, advances, and presenting the pistol at his head, demands an apology :

" 'Now Sir Counting-house, repeat

That expression which I told you proved bad manners!

Did I cheat ?'

'Cheat you did, you knew you cheated, and this moment know as well.

As for me, my homely breeding bids you—fire and go to Hell !'
 Twice the muzzle touched my forehead. Heavy barrel, flurried wrist,
 Either spoils a steady lifting. Thrice : then 'Laugh at Hell who list,
 I can't ! God's no fable either. Did this boy's eye wink once ? No !
 There's no standing him and Hell and God all three against me—so,
 I did cheat !'

And down he threw the pistol."

This would seem enough like courage ; but Mr. Browning characteristically makes Clive dwell on his fear lest the incident should be repeated as proof that his life had been spared by the magnanimity of his enemy.

The grimly humorous "Doctor ——" is an illustration of the old adage that a bad wife is stronger than death. The Devil, who is here synonymous with Death, making use of his annual opportunity of criticising the divine arrangements, complains—

"Men pay Nature's debt
 Because they must at my demand ; decline
 To pay it henceforth surely men will please,
 Provided husbands with bad wives combine
 To baffle death."

And thus he will be defrauded of his due. In reply, he is told to go on earth, marry, and put the matter to a practical test. He does so, and the result of the union is a son whom he brings up to the medical profession. The doctor rapidly rises to fame, owing to his power of seeing his father's position in the sick room, and thus judging at a glance whether the case is hopeless or not. At length, summoned to the bedside of the Emperor, he is obliged to pronounce the case hopeless, notwithstanding the patient's offer of his daughter's hand as the price of a cure. Having exhausted all entreaties, he hits on the happy device of sending for his mother, at whose entrance into the room Satan disappears through the ceiling. "Pietro of Albano" is a magician who enables an adventurer to climb to the highest position and meets with ingratitude in return. The novelty and interest which Mr. Browning generally infuses into the most threadbare subjects are hardly so marked as usual, while the rhymes are sometimes execrable. "Mulèykek," one of the best pieces in the book, turns on the well-worn theme of an Arab's love for his horse ; yet it is eminently spirited and fresh. The diction is admirable, and there is pathos in the preference of Hosèyn for the reputation of his steed, even to the possession of the animal. Mulèykek being stolen from him, Hosèyn, mounted on Buhèyseh, pursues the thief, and is on the point of overtaking him when something prompts him to shout :—

"Dog Duhl, damned

Son of the dust,
 Touch the right ear and press with your foot my pearl's left flank."

Duhl does so, and vanishes for ever. The neighbours, astonished at his infatuation, jeer at Hosèyn :—

"To have simply held the tongue were a task for a boy or girl,
 And here were Mulèykek again, the eye like an antelope,
 The child of his heart by day, the wife of his breast by night !
 'And the beaten in speed !' wept Hosèyn : 'You never have loved my
 Pearl.'"

Laura Dibalzo. By Richard Hengist Home. (Newman and Co.)—In his preface the author of *Cosmo de' Medici* complains that though the present tragedy like his previous dramas is systematically constructed for stage representation, there is no hope for him in the absence of a National Theatre. It will strike most readers, that even with the aid of so desirable an institution, there would still remain an important objection to the production of this play at the present time, namely, that it deals with a very recent chapter of history. The plot is laid at Naples, and turns on an abortive conspiracy against the ex-King Bomba, the Salomba of the play. The manifold tyrannies of the King, culminating in the imprisonment and death of Silvio Panorio, have driven Dibalzo, a Sicilian nobleman, Guarini his brother-in-law, and other Italian patriots to conspire against his throne and life. They are joined by Skurdenka, a Polish Jew, and Batthymaros, a Hungarian, both exiles from their own countries for political offences. The conspirators are agreed as to the end, but differ as to the means; Dibalzo, Skurdenka and others being in favour of assassination, while Guarini and Batthymaros object to taking life except in open fight. A nocturnal debate on this point in the cloisters of a ruined monastery is interrupted by the sudden appearance of the royal guards. Guarini dashes down the torch, and all escape unobserved, except Dibalzo, Skurdenka and Batthymaros, who are secured as the curtain falls on the second act. Meanwhile Laura, Dibalzo's wife, and Edita, his infant daughter, have been seized, and the third act is occupied by endeavours first to make the three men incriminate each other, and failing that, to elicit evidence of their guilt from Laura and Edita. The effort is finally successful, the child unconsciously condemning her father by telling how she had once heard him say it was a good thing to kill a wicked king, and the three are led to the dungeon. Guarini, however, effects the escape of Dibalzo, leaving Laura and her child, the Jew and the Hungarian, still in the King's hands. There is a very fine scene in the fourth act in which Sforglia, the Commissary of Police, attempts to induce the prisoners to reveal their accomplices by working on Laura's fears for the safety of her child, and by offering pardon alternately to the Jew and to Batthymaros, who has been stupefied by poison.

In the fifth act Guarini comes face to face with the King and has the opportunity of killing him, but instead of doing so, tries to extort promises of reform at the sword's point, and is eventually captured by the Guards. He and Dibalzo, recaptured, are condemned to be crushed under a huge stone which is suspended over their heads suddenly to fall upon them. Sforglia renews his attempts to extort the names of the accomplices from Dibalzo and Guarini, and even offers in vain to Laura the bribe of her husband's life.

“Is it only yes, or no?”

Immortal souls hang on a syllable!

Truth, honour, woman's weakness, falsehood, firmness,

My husband's last injunction and my brother's—

Sforglia. Both suicides through you unless you save them!

Laura. A true wife, trusted with the last extremes,

Must not be false when this last. . . stay the signal!

A moment! yet a moment!—but one moment—

In case I lose my senses—as I shall do— [*She rushes to and fro.*]

I see it in the air, and the mad sky,

Now full of fiery faces, and the shadows

Of constant stone descending! my brain's stunned

With crushing sounds !—I shall be raving soon—
 My throat is choked with blood ! I must go mad—
 And then I might consent—So God assist me
 To stand up in my grave-clothes, and say, ‘ No ’ !”

[Dies.

The qualities, both literary and dramatic, of the play are of a high order ; the contrast between the fiery patriotism of Dibalzo and the more scrupulous and hesitating policy of Guarini is well sustained, and the hard contest in Laura’s breast between conjugal and natural affection on the one hand, and love of country and duty on the other, is often finely depicted. In the characters of Panorio and Strongithaem may be recognised the respective portraits of Poerio and Mr. Gladstone.

The New Era. By Virginia Vaughan. (Chapman and Hall, Limited.)—The idea of this work is fanciful and daring. The authoress holds views on the subject of a future state and the correlation of the visible and invisible universe which must be described as eminently speculative, but which she considers capable of demonstration, and destined one day to be verified by science. Nevertheless she has chosen to present them in the form of a dramatic poem rather than as a philosophical treatise. The scheme of the poem is simple enough. Hesperus is a young Italian killed at the siege of Rome, who has only just entered the Celestial sphere, to the glories of which he and the reader are introduced in the first scene by Isis and other Celestials whose function had been to watch over him during his life on earth, as it is now his to watch over the young Roman lady Vittoria Piombini. At the end of the first scene, summoned by Vittoria’s voice, Hesperus returns to earth, leaving the other Celestials to carry on a discussion as to the political future of the earth and the powers therein, from which it appears that Celestial politicians are no more in accord than those on earth as to the measures to be taken, and that they do not yield to them in dogmatic enunciation of their opinions.

The third scene brings us back to Earth, the ruins of the Coliseum and a moonlight interview between Mazzini and Vittoria Piombini, which is interrupted by the arrival of Federico, the cousin and tutor of Vittoria, with a party of armed servants. Under threat of assassinating Mazzini, Federico obtains from Vittoria a promise of her hand, although she hates him and regards him as her evil genius. The connection between this incident and the other parts of the poem is but slight ; indeed, it would scarcely appear why it was introduced at all, except for the intention announced in the preface that the present volume shall form but a link between two dramas to be hereafter published, one of which will deal with the life of Vittoria Piombini as swayed by the opposing influences of Hesperus and Federico.

In the fourth scene there is a grand convocation of “Ethereal Spheres,” to witness the celebration by the people of the planet *Mira*, of their attainment to what we should call a Millennial existence. The Congress of Miranites being greeted by the King of “Harmonia,” the chief city of the planet, the greeting is responded to first by a representative of the Nations, who delivers a congratulatory address to the Miranites on their achievements :

“The deserts they dauntless invaded and vanquished the stifling simoon :
 Arid wastes were replaced by rich gardens rewarding their labour full soon.
 In the boreal seas they adventured and conquered the kingdoms of ice ;
 Their weapons were patience and faith, perseverance and zeal, sacrifice,
 And wherever they trod, their presence created a fair Paradise.”

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The speaker is followed in succession by representatives of Science, Philosophy, Literature, Art, and Religion, who address the Congress in a similar strain. The blank verse in which the main part of the poem is written gives place, in this scene, to a variety of lyric metres, some of which are fairly well managed. Indeed, considering the enormous difficulty of the task, it has been attended with a very creditable measure of success.

New and Old. By J. Addington Symonds. (Smith, Elder, and Co.)—In this volume of poems we have an instance of Mr. Symonds's versatility and varied power of execution. Those who know his prose works, and are familiar with the ornate style and well-selected vocabulary which distinguish them will be prepared for the delicate craftsmanship which characterises his verse. It is not surprising, stored as his mind is with classic lore, that some of the best poems in the book should be those which deal with Greek themes, as "Art in Love," a dialogue between Polygnotus and Theron, "Pantarkes," and "Hesperus and Hymenæus." But not less at home is he in the representation of genuine lyrical feeling, as is amply testified in many of the Lyrics of Life and Art, notably in such songs as "Spring," "Mene mene," and "Lebensphilosophie." Though free from the alternative affectation of the day, Mr. Symonds's poetry yet shows what may be done in the direction of melody and smoothness, by a just appreciation of the value of liquids and vowels. To say that his verse is not distinguished by originality is only to repeat the well-known truth that a mind, critical by nature and trained in that direction, beyond a certain point does not admit of the creative faculty in its freedom and impulse. If we always feel that Mr. Symonds has himself well in hand, and never wanders beyond the bounds he has laid down for his guidance, we at least are equally aware that within that limit he ranges with perfect freedom and, untrammelled by metre, gives form to the subtle moods of spirit and sense, feeling with a delicate hand that relationship between them which most are too clumsily fingered to touch.

History of Classical Greek Literature, by the Rev. J. P. Mahaffy (Longmans and Co.), supplies a want long felt by students for some connected account of the origin and growth of Greek literature, which would bind together and develop the knowledge which they get, in a very fragmentary form, from their studies of works of isolated authors during their school course. The place occupied, as far as Latin authors are concerned, by Mr. Cruttwell's "History of Roman Literature," is now taken by Mr. Mahaffy in his treatment of the poets and prose authors of Greece, which, according to German fashion, he confines to different volumes. But the greater importance of Greek literature, and the impossibility of treating it from any other but a wide point of view in these days of exhaustive criticism, render it unlikely that any competent treatment of the subject will result only in a student's text-book. And we remark that throughout Mr. Mahaffy introduces us to all the important theories, both of German and English scholars, on all unsettled questions. The first volume embraces the period from Homeric poetry down to the death of Menander, some 300 years B.C., Alexandrian authors being rightly excluded from a work intended principally for students. Among the most interesting parts of this volume is certainly the clear and impartial discussion of the Homeric controversy from the revival of learning down to the present day. While doing ample justice to the German schools of criticism, the author clearly leans towards the view of Mr. Grote of the divided authorship of the *Iliad* and of the *Odyssey*, though differing

from him in greater scepticism as to the single authorship of the *Iliad*. In the expression of general tendencies of different ages and of the interaction of literary and social influences, Mr. Mahaffy is particularly happy, while his detailed accounts of the several works of each individual author—full of the results of the latest criticism—will be most important to the student wishing to concentrate himself on a particular author. The volume on Prose writers begins with Herodotus and closes with Aristotle, and though the treatment is chiefly from a literary point of view, the accounts of Plato and Aristotle contain philosophy enough to produce a very clear impression as to their respective positions in the history of thought.

History of England, from the conclusion of the Great War in 1815. By Spencer Walpole. (Longmans and Co.)—This work covers the same ground as Mr. Cory's "Guide to Modern English History," and the third volume, which brings us down to 1840, overlaps Mr. McCarthy's "History of our own Times" by a few years. It differs, however, in character from both of them. Mr. Cory gives us a brilliant review of facts, rather than a detailed analysis of their cause, whilst Mr. McCarthy, with his facile style and the power of distinctly reproducing a scene by a few graphic touches, renders history popular with the numerous class of readers who wish to be amused and instructed at the least possible expense of mental labour. Mr. Walpole, on the other hand, bestows great pains on the political history of the period of which he treats, and is eminently fair in his judgment of men and things. He gives an interesting, although often painful, picture of the social condition of England after the great war, and of the reforms which were slowly effected on the ensuing years of peace. The account of the conjugal relations between George IV. and his wife gives some human colour to the scene, but it is of measures rather than of men that Mr. Walpole writes, and his book will be useful to those readers who have not the opportunity or inclination to consult the more voluminous pages of the *Annual Register*.

History of our Own Times. By Justin McCarthy, M.P. Vols. III. and IV. (Chatto and Windus.)—Mr. McCarthy has finished the laborious and difficult task which he undertook, the history of the reign of Queen Victoria to the general election of the present year, and he has fulfilled all the conditions which can justly be demanded from such a work. His book is nearly exhaustive, yet never prolix; it is fair, and, above all, it is amusing. The third volume opens with Lord Palmerston's Chinese war, and closes with the death of that minister. It embraces the Indian mutiny and the American civil war, and in Continental matters the Italian war of 1859, the Polish insurrection, and the German war with Denmark. A good specimen of Mr. McCarthy's lighter style may be observed in his treatment of the absurd story of the *Lorcha* "Arrow," and its train of consequences. He is equally successful in his handling of the more difficult subject of the Indian Mutiny, in the account of which there is much that is necessarily personal, while the broader lines of history, the causes and effects of this disastrous revolt, are clearly seized and ably drawn. From the opening description of the Sepoy insurrection, to that of the new government which replaced the Company, the whole account occupies less than 100 pages, yet all important incidents are noticed, all well-known names mentioned, all questions of politics adequately discussed. The fourth volume deals with topics so varied as the Jamaica insurrection,

Fenianism, the Reform Bill of Lord Beaconsfield, the startling measures of the Gladstone Government, the Foreign policy of Lord Beaconsfield. That all readers will agree with what Mr. McCarthy says on topics of such recent or present interest is impossible ; but whatever may be their politics, they must acknowledge the fairness with which the facts are presented, from which all can draw the conclusions most consistent with their views. The sketches of statesmen are in no respect inferior to those of the earlier volumes, and the portraits of Lord Palmerston and Lord Beaconsfield are elaborated with especial care. A short sketch of the literature of the later half of Queen Victoria's reign forms the concluding chapter.

Genoa: how the Republic rose and fell. By J. Theodore Bent. (C. Kegan Paul & Co.)—This monograph of the Genoa Republic will be read with interest by the readers of Italian history, since it has been compiled by Mr. Bent with care and research, although it must be added that his matter is better than his manner. The arrangement of the book is somewhat confused ; there are few dates and no index. He begins the third chapter with a string of interrogatives which reminds us of one indifferent translation from the French, and he has an inveterate habit of placing the verb before the subject. Thus we have in three consecutive paragraphs : "Not over well-pleased were the Christians," "Very little better was the Crusade," "A wild and touching scene it must have been." Genoa, with Pisa at her gates, and Austria and France pressing on her frontiers, maintained the struggle for existence for more than six hundred years, and only crumbled into nothingness before the disintegrating forces of the French Revolution. Unlike her great rival on the Adriatic, which took her part in the larger question of statecraft, Genoa was nothing if not commercial, and found scope for her energies in banking and in voyages of trade and discovery ; at the very outset of her history she exacted exorbitant payment for the transport of the Crusaders to the coast of Syria, and it was the oppressive taxation of Corsica which led to the revolt of that island, and which was the proximate cause of the downfall of the Republic.

The Rise of the Huguenots. By Professor Baird. (Hodder and Stoughton.)—Professor Baird's scholarly work is calculated to throw a flood of light on the earlier and least-known period of the History of Protestantism in France. He says:—"The period of about half a century with which these volumes are concerned may properly be regarded as the formative age of the Huguenots in France. It included the first planting of the reformed doctrines, and the steady growth of the Reformation in spite of obloquy and persecution, whether exercised under the form of law, or vented in lawless violence. It saw the gathering and regular organisation of the Reformed Communities, as well as their consolidation into one of the most orderly and zealous churches of the Protestant family. It witnessed the failure of the bloody legislation of three successive monarchs, and the equally abortive attempts of a fourth to destroy the Huguenots, first with the sword, and afterwards with the dagger. At the close of this period the Huguenots had survived four sanguinary wars. . . . They were just entering upon a fifth, under favourable auspices, for they had made it manifest to all men that their success depended less upon the lives of leaders, of whom they might be robbed by the hand of the assassin, than upon a conviction of the righteousness of their cause The Huguenots at the death of Charles IX.

stood before the world a well-defined body that had outgrown the feebleness of infancy, and had proved itself entitled to consideration and respect." Such are the events of which Professor Baird has traced the course. From the mass of authorities consulted, he has collected much interesting matter, and he has compared the accounts of Protestant and Catholic historians, checking their accuracy by those of Venetian ambassadors and other contemporary writers who are not directly interested in the events and persons described. Professor Baird evidently writes with a strong Protestant bias, which, while it does not lead him to colour the facts, strong enough in their naked simplicity, causes him to leave entirely on one side what we may call the Pagan aspect of the great revolution of thought in the sixteenth century, and also the wonderful revival of Catholicism which was the *contrecoup* of the Reformation.

The Nineteenth Century : a History. By Robert Mackenzie. (Nelson and Sons.)—Mr. Mackenzie's work is an attempt to present, in a handy and popular form, a history of the great events and movements of the present century in our own country, our colonies, and in Europe and America. It is divided into three parts ; the first book deals with the opening events of the century and the wars of Buonaparte, ending with an able summary of the conditions of the Congress of Vienna. The second book is devoted to England and her colonies, her social condition, the growth and development of her material prosperity, her foreign and domestic policy. The third book traces the changes and development of the great powers of Europe, the progress of the United States of America, and the decline of the temporal power of the papacy, concluding with a chapter on the gradual growth of political liberty throughout Europe. Mr. Mackenzie's work is written in a direct, simple style, and contains a great mass of information arranged in a compact and readable form, and with a just eye to proportion. It will be found a most useful work for reference.

The Early History of Charles James Fox. By George Otto Trevelyan, M.P. (Longmans and Co.)—This able and most interesting work purports to be complete in itself, but it is to be hoped that Mr. Trevelyan intends to follow it up with a second volume, since the work before us, while it records little of Fox's life except his youthful faults and follies, is full of hints and suggestions of his future wisdom and greatness ; and all who have read the able and candid account of the perverse wilfulness of the brilliant youth would hail with eager delight a sketch from the same hand of the untiring energy with which in his later years he nobly devoted himself to the cause of freedom and justice. Fox's exploits in private and public to the age of twenty-five would scarcely have proved subject matter for so large a book, which is chiefly devoted to the political history of a time fruitful in events and disturbed by the discussion of important constitutional questions, and to the description of a state of society which, as the author justly says, was greatly enjoyed by those who shared its advantages, but of which the licentiousness and corruption seem almost incredible to those who live in a purer and more honest age. Space will not allow even to mention all the great questions which came before the English people in those years of fierce political strife, in which it was finally decided whether government was to be personal or parliamentary. The account of the Wilkes agitation and its train of consequences is admirable ; and the close and friendly relations subsisting between the upper classes in England and

France, with the effects which they afterwards had upon the views with which Englishmen regarded the excesses of the French Revolution, form the theme for two most eloquent pages. The candour and impartiality of the work, in which full justice is done to Fox's opponents, is specially noteworthy; the sketch in particular of George III., to whom the author rightly attributes a strong but narrow understanding, is not wholly unfavourable, and brings out the courage, the temperance in a dissipated age, and the devotion to business by which his character and conduct were distinguished.

James Outram: a Biography. By Major-General Sir F. J. Goldsmid, C.B., K.C.S.I. (Smith, Elder and Co.)—This biography contributes an interesting chapter to Indian history. Sir James Outram is one of the heroes of whom England has good reason to be proud. A man of undaunted courage and chivalrous honour, his career was unsullied by the lust of conquest which has obscured the glory of so many achievements in our Eastern empire. His sympathy was with the native races, and in order to keep faith with them he was ready to brave the displeasure of his superiors. Of this we have an instance in the cession of Shâl to Kelat in 1842, to which Lord Auckland had pledged the Government, but the measure did not meet with Lord Ellenborough's approval. "I have," as Outram says in a private letter, "incurred the extreme wrath of his lordship," but he did not for a moment regret his action, although he found some relief in unburdening his mind to his sympathetic correspondent. "I do not," he writes, "complain of being bandied like a racket ball up and down this abominable pass, because it is my duty to go wherever it is thought I am most required; but I do complain of the *lackey* style in which I am treated by the Governor-General; of the bitter reproof he so lavishly bestows on me when he thinks me wrong, and I know I am right; of the withering neglect with which he treats the devoted services of those in my department." His protest against the annexation of Scinde provoked the bitter antagonism of Sir Charles Napier; and although he could not feel the same sympathy for the effete government of Oude which had been aroused by the gallant defence of the Amira, this transaction was also opposed to his judgment and advice, even while he loyally carried out Lord Dalhousie's instructions. His gallant conduct during the Indian Mutiny must be well known to our readers, and it must be added that he was as merciful as he was brave, and took no part in the hideous reprisals which were sanctioned by some of our commanders. We are told that he turned suddenly on a man who was advocating severe and indiscriminate punishment, and said: "I have always observed that those who are the most bloodthirsty in talk are the least remarkable for personal courage." We do not often read a man's epitaph to discover his true character, but it is emphatically true of James Outram, the Bayard of India, that "never was any loved as this man was by those whom he governed or led to battle."

Sister Dora: a Biography. By Margaret Lonsdale. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—Rarely has such a life been lived as that of the subject of this memoir. Sister Dora was Dorothy Patteson, the daughter of a Yorkshire clergyman of Hausewell, near Richmond. The youngest of twelve children, she was born in 1832 and died in 1878. She devoted the greater part of her life to hospital nursing, and the scene of her principal labours was the cottage hospital at Walsal, of which, from its origin, she was superintendent. Her whole career was a marvel of devotedness, of almost superhuman labour, of tenderness, and patience. No work was too menial for her, no peril too

great, no achievements too arduous. Endowed with unusual physical strength, she would not only lift fever and small-pox patients, but would unassisted carry the dead from one floor to another. She was the nurse of the whole town, and would at any hour go any distance to visit a patient, and dress wounds with a surgical skill that excited the surprise and admiration of experienced practitioners. She was full of fun and gaiety, and brightened the wards and gave hope to the sick by her uniform cheerfulness and unvarying good humour. Of strong, resolute will and unbounded courage, she would venture anywhere—into street brawls, haunts of infamy, brawls of drunken men and women—and yet without ever losing one jot of her womanly grace and tenderness. She was universally beloved by the wide circle of people of all ranks with whom her self-imposed duties brought her in contact, and Miss Lonsdale's memoir is but one among many testimonies to the greatness of her life and character.

Memoirs of the Life and Work of Philip Fearsall Carpenter. Edited by his Brother. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—Philip Carpenter was the son of Dr. Lant Carpenter of Bristol, and brother of Mary Carpenter, who survived him only three weeks, and whose memoir was published nearly at the same time. He was scarcely less remarkable in character, endowments, and achievements than any of his highly gifted family. He was educated as a Unitarian, and became a minister of that sect. His brother bears a noble testimony to the singular beauty of his character, to the varied interests and occupations of his catholic mind. His love of music amounted to a passion, and he had the religious temperament and the refined sensibilities of which this is so often a type. Like many who hold his creed, his emotional sympathies demanded more than it could supply, and it is not surprising therefore to find that long before his death he had drifted a long way even from theoretic Unitarianism. He was a vegetarian, a strong and uncompromising teetotaller, and an anti-tobacco reformer. He adopted the principles of the Peace Society and of the Anti-Contagious Diseases Society. As a school teacher and reformer, as a sanitary reformer, as an anti-slavery champion, he was unrelenting and uncompromising. He died at Montreal in 1878, in the fifty-ninth year of his age. The memoir of his life is ably written and full of interest, and well worth reading.

Crosby Records : a Cavalier's Note-Book. Edited by Rev. Elison Gibson. (Longmans and Co.)—This beautifully got-up volume, exquisitely printed on hand-made paper with wide margins, contains the "notes, anecdotes, and observations" of William Blundell of Crosby, Lancashire, Esquire, and captain of dragoons in the Royalist army of 1642. An interesting account of this ancient county family is prefixed by the editor, but the real charm of the book lies in the shrewd observations of the old catholic cavalier. "Note," he says, "such things as are more likely to be serviceable many years after the noting than about the present time. For young men do collect such things as to their riper years do appear but toys ; therefore be sure to make your notes a little more weighty (i.e., of matters somewhat higher) than your present genius and inclination can yet fully relish. Time will bring you to the liking and the use of those which otherwise would be tedious and fruitless. Collect only the best things, even a few of the very best, to avoid contempt of your own collection no less than confusion. Do not forbear to note because you know not unto what letter or class to reduce the thing most properly : be sure to insert it." This extract will serve to show

that the entries are of a most miscellaneous character, but they are all the product of his own thought and observation, and are generally very judicious. He expresses himself in clear and concise terms, free from affectation or pedantry. The anecdotes which he recounts are well told, and the quaintness of their dress reminds us of his contemporary Pepys. Three short entries taken at random will show the character of the work better than a long disquisition. "I think it less damage to Christianity if we conceal a hundred true miracles than if we publish one false one." "The buildings and people of Liverpool, our next port town, are certainly more than doubly augmented, and the customs eight or tenfold increased, within twenty-eight years last past." "1667, May.—It is agreed betwixt me and John Tildesley that he shall serve me one whole year, from May 2, 1667, for £4 wages, and for such vails as shall happen in the service; but I am not obliged to give him any further reward for his services either by old clothes or any other way." Signed by W. Blundell and John Tildesley.

A Life's Decision. By T. W. Allies. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—This work belongs rather to the biographical than to the theological library. Though published in the author's lifetime, it may almost rank as a posthumous work, since the account of the struggles and impressions which it chronicles was written in 1853. *A Life's Decision* is the narrative of the painful experiences of the author, distracted by doubt and craving for the repose of a settled religion and of an infallible intellectual guidance during a period of five years, until he finally broke with the English Church and was received into the Roman Communion of Father Newman. Besides the record of his personal experiences, Mr. Allies' volume contains many sketches of his contemporaries in the English Church. Chief among these is the late Bishop of Oxford, Samuel Wilberforce, whom he portrays as a man of two wholly different aspects, now conciliating, now hard and defiant. For Blomfield, Howley, Pusey, and Keble, men under whose influence or control he came more or less, Mr. Allies is equally devoid of sympathy or respect; and regarding, as is manifest, the Anglican episcopate as entirely contemptible, we are not surprised that he sought a refuge in that Church where authority triumphs over private judgment.

Life and Letters of Ogier Ghiselin de Busbecq. By C. T. Forster and F. H. B. Daniell. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—These curious and interesting letters, now published for the first time in English, were written in elegant Latin by an eyewitness and actor in some of the most important events of the sixteenth century. Robertson in his *History of Charles V.*, De Thou, Gibbon, Coxe, Von Hammer, Ranke, Creasy, and Motley have borrowed largely from him, while much valuable evidence furnished by his writings has been hitherto forgotten or ignored. Illegitimate son of George Ghiselin, Sieur de Bousbecque, the author of these letters was born in 1522, and after going the round of the great universities of Europe, became the friend and fellow-worker of Erasmus, and in 1554 made his first entry into public life in the suite of Don Pedro Lasso, sent to England as ambassador by Charles V. on the occasion of the marriage of Mary with Philip of Spain. The abilities displayed by the young diplomatist were so great that he was soon after called upon by Ferdinand of Austria to undertake the difficult and dangerous task of acting as his representative at the Turkish Court; and four letters, written according to the fashion of the students of that time for the information and amusement of private friends, supply us with a full narrative

of the eight years he spent at the Court of Solyman. The object of his mission was to stay by the arts of diplomacy the advance of the Asiatic conqueror, and he was in a great measure successful. He afterwards held a high post in France, and his letters to Rodolph and Maximilian give a lively picture of the wretched state of that country under Henry III. We refer our readers to the book itself, which is in the highest degree valuable and interesting. "Nothing," says his biographer, "is above him, nothing beneath him. His political information is important to the soberest of historians, his gossiping details would gladden a Macaulay. . . . Throughout his letters will be found hints for the architect, the physician, the philologist, and the statesman; he has stories to charm a child, and tales to make a greybeard weep."

Royal Windsor. By William Hepworth Dixon. 4 vols. 1879-1880. (Hurst and Blackett.)—Mr. Dixon only finished the revise of the third volume the evening before his death, and the fourth was revised by his daughter. It is certainly the best of his historical works, if they may be so styled, and, being free from the inaccuracies that marred some of his others, will be a more acceptable production. All the builders of Windsor Castle were, he states, with one exception, men and women of English birth and English taste: Henry Beaulerc, Henry of Winchester, Edward of Windsor, Edward of York, Henry VII., Queen Elizabeth, George IV., and Queen Victoria. Ages before the Normans came to Windsor a Saxon hunting-lodge had been erected in the forest, and William the Conqueror, while retaining it, built his Norman keep upon the castle hill, and from this keep no captive ever escaped. The natural interest awakened by the title of 'Royal Windsor' is heightened by the announcement that Mr. Dixon obtained Her Majesty's leave to inspect the "royal house in and out, above ground and below ground, with the utmost freedom and completeness, and to peruse all documents preserved at Windsor concerning the structure and its history." It may therefore be concluded that the statements contained in these volumes are based upon existing authorities, and furnish the data upon which Mr. Dixon has built up his attractive work. Here, as in 'Her Majesty's Tower' and subsequent books, Mr. Dixon has not restricted his narrative to the subject of its title, but has roamed far and wide for incident and anecdote. The first volume deals more with the planning and progress of the building than the others, whilst they are devoted to personages in English history whose lives can supply any romantic matter. Some of Mr. Dixon's statements create surprise, and, in the absence of references, a certain amount of incredulity. For instance, Richard of the Lion Heart (as he prefers to call Richard Cœur de Lion), the hero of most men and women, "had nearly every fault of a bad man in addition to almost every vice of a bad king." He had neither love for country nor respect for law; he broke his father's heart by his rebellion and ingratitude; he made a bad brother and a still worse husband; whilst his worst vice was, not greed nor perfidy, but pure ferocity. William de Longchamps was a dwarf. He limped, and his body had the twitch of a monkey. "Shrivelled in his loins, he had a gibbous chest, a short neck, a receding chin, and a dog's upper lip and chaps." The story about Edward III., the Countess of Salisbury, and the origin of the Order of the Garter, is nothing but a myth; and doubts are raised as to Catherine's marriage with Owen Tudor. Mr. Dixon's characters are as usual rendered with microscopic sharpness and infinite detail; how they were dressed, what they said, and

the way they looked, described racily and graphically as by an eyewitness; and herein lies the secret of the power that has gained for Mr. Dixon so many admirers.

The Boke named the Governour. By Sir Thomas Elyot. Edited by H. H. S. Croft. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—Since this is a reprint, it only claims notice from the fact that no complete reproduction of the original edition of 1531 has appeared before. The last edition of this curious and interesting treatise was published in 1834, but from the liberties taken with the text it is altogether valueless. Mr. Croft gives us a faithful reprint of the original text, and the archaic spelling may discourage some readers; but his copious notes clear up all obscurities, and he has also drawn up a glossary, which is a valuable storehouse of the words in common use in the sixteenth century. Sir Thomas Elyot's views on education were, like those of Colet and Erasmus, far in advance of his age, nor is his plea against the barbarity of schoolmasters even yet altogether out of date. "By a cruell and iron maister the wittes of children be dulled; and that thinge for the whyche children be often tymes beaten is to them ever after fastidious."

Japanese Pottery. By Augustus W. Franks. (Chapman and Hall.)—A report on Japanese ceramics, prepared by Mr. Shioda and translated by M. T. Asami, to accompany and illustrate the collection sent by the authorities of the South Kensington Museum to the Philadelphia Exhibition, forms the most important part of the present volume. The only alterations that have been made in editing it are to bring the Japanese names to an uniform mode of spelling, and to correct the phraseology so as to render the meaning of the writer more clear. A short introductory notice by Mr. Franks contains some interesting observations on the history and ornamentation of ceramic art in Japan, and he adds in an appendix a list of the potters and factories that exhibited in Paris in 1878. A number of marks engraved in facsimile will render the work valuable to collectors.

Newton's Essays on Art and Archaeology. (Macmillan and Co.)—In this volume Mr. Newton, the learned keeper of Greek and Roman antiquities in the British Museum, has reprinted a selection from his writings on archaeological subjects ranging over a period of no less than thirty years. In the opening chapter, a lecture originally delivered in 1850, Mr. Newton defines the limits of the Science of Archæology, but he has no pretensions to treat of the science as a whole, confining himself to one chapter in the book of human progress, the origin and development of the arts of Greece, as exemplified by the monuments of stone, bronze, marble, metal, or clay, in all their varied forms. The series of separate papers contained in this volume will afford a tolerably complete *coup d'œil* of the history of Greek art from its beginning to its perfection. The earliest monuments dealt with are the now famous treasures from Mycenæ unearthed by Dr. Schliemann. The transition is easy from the discoveries of Mycenæ to those at Cyprus, and the two taken together show a regular progressive development. The German excavations at Olympia, which have enriched the world with more than one masterpiece of Greek art, afford a theme on which Mr. Newton has much to tell us. The concluding essay is a review of the first two volumes of the British Museum Catalogue of Greek Coins, the value of which as exponents of the art, the history, and the religion of the ancient world, can hardly be over estimated. Mr. Newton's book will be most welcome to all people of culture who will take the trouble to read it in connection with the monuments

with which it deals. To those, however, who have no previous knowledge, or who cannot visit more than once or twice the galleries of the British Museum, it can hardly perhaps be recommended.

History of Painting. By Dr. Alfred Woltmann and Dr. Karl Woermann. Edited by Sidney Colvin. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—This is the first volume of a work of which the conclusion has been unfortunately delayed by the death of Dr. Woermann. He had previously entrusted that portion of the task which relates to ancient art to Dr. Woltmann, who has now undertaken to complete the whole. The thoroughness and research which are characteristic of German scholarship have been brought to bear upon this work, and since Mr. Colvin has claimed and exercised the right of issuing a somewhat free translation, the style is not unduly obscure or cumbrous. We only regret that the illustrations, which are reprinted from the German plates, are not more worthy of a publication which has been printed and got up with peculiar care. They are deficient both in force and delicacy, and these faults, which are less patent in the examples of the elementary stages of art in Egypt and Europe, become lamentably apparent in the specimens given of the ancient friezes of Greece and Italy. But to those who wish to study art for themselves, this work will prove a valuable guide, and the sequel, which is to treat of the age of the Renaissance, promises to be even more useful and interesting.

The Industrial Arts of India. By George Birdwood. (Chapman and Hall.)—This volume forms one of the series of Art Handbooks issued under the authority of the Lords of the Committee of the Council on Education, and its author, Dr. Birdwood of the India Office, possesses a wide knowledge of the art manufactures of India which specially qualifies him for the work. Its avowed purpose is to serve as a handbook for visitors to the India Museum, but also for all who desire information respecting the arts and industries of the Indian Empire. The first part contains a short sketch of the Hindu Pantheon, without some knowledge of which half the interest of the manual arts of India is lost; since every detail of decoration, Aryan, Dravidian, or Turanian, has a religious meaning, and Eastern art can never be rightly understood without a familiar acquaintance with the character and subjects of the religious poetry, national legends, and mythological writings that have always been their inspiration, and of which they are perfected imagery. The second part is an exhaustive index of every district and town in British India where manufactures of any special artistic quality are produced, and an account of the productions. The woodcuts with which the book is copiously illustrated are excellent, showing specimens of jewellery, art-furniture, carving, inlaid work, pottery, embroidery, and woven stuffs.

Antiquities of Greece. Schömann. Translated by E. G. Hardy and J. S. Mann. (Rivingtons.)—In nothing has a greater change taken place within the last few years than in the attitude with which Englishmen regard the works of contemporary German scholars. This is seen as well in the increasing number of German books, historical, scientific, and literary, which are constantly being translated for the English press, as in the numerous references to German research and erudition which all writers have to make, and especially those who treat historical and scientific matters. Mr. Hardy and Mr. Mann have translated Schömann's work as a connecting link between a History of Greece like that of Grote or Curtius and a Dictionary of Classical Antiquities like that edited by Dr. W. Smith.

There is no doubt that such a link will be welcome to the intelligent but perhaps uninstructed public who have not the leisure to read a many-volumed history, or to lose themselves among the multitude of subjects generally included under antiquities. The modern attack of scientists against the humanities has assuredly stimulated many to judge for themselves of the importance to modern education, and consequently to future civilisation, of the study of past social, political, and religious life. The opportunity for this is afforded by such a book as Schömann's—in two volumes only, the first of which, called "The State," is now offered in an excellent and eminently readable translation. It is obvious that the difference between a work of this kind and a history lies in grouping of the subject-matter and in subordination of parts. In a history, chronological order up to a certain point is almost a necessity for the right and effective presentation of the sequence of events, and the military system is of paramount importance in treating of the struggle of a nation for existence over other nations. But in a book like the present the material bearing on the different departments of society, politics, and religion is grouped under various subdivisions of these, so that the reader gets at once a connected view of the characteristics of the Greek state, the constitution of the various states, and the detailed organisation of the individual states, instead of accidentally and in irregular order. The appearance of the book is particularly opportune at the present time, when classical archæology is taking rank as an important study, and when any contribution to the subject is warmly received.

Hellenica. Essays, edited by Evelyn Abbott. (Rivingtons.)—In the collection of essays under the above title, contributed by many of the first scholars of the day, we find a tacit protest against the idea that interest in the remote literature of the past is exhausted and no longer to be expected from a practical generation. Such a book springs out of the belief that no age can do without the contemplation of the great writers of antiquity, their struggles after truth, and the expression of what they gained in the drama, in philosophy, and history. These essays, though independent of each other, are yet felt to be connected by some such idea as this. We have, amongst others, the *Theology and Ethics of Sophocles*, treated by Mr. Abbott; *Plato's Theory of Education in the Republic*, by Mr. Nettleship; *Aristotle's Conception of the State*, by Mr. Bradley; *Thucydides*, by Mr. Jebb; and *Greek Oracles*, by Mr. F. Myers. One thing we notice in these Essays is the difference between modern scholarship and that of past generations. It is no longer confined to the dry bones of classic lore, but is brought to bear on ancient authors with all the light of intervening and recent knowledge concerning them, and, what is equally important, concerning the great questions which they were busy with. This method of treatment cannot fail to be of service in any age, especially if it shows that our much boasted of advance in civilisation is not so great as is supposed, and that we have much to learn still in most departments from those who laid the foundation of our knowledge. One often asks oneself, when brought face to face with Plato or Aristotle or Thucydides in such clear expositions of their views as these before us, how much we have progressed in our system of education beyond the ideal laid down in the 'Republic,' or in our views of the right conduct of life beyond the ethics of Aristotle, or whether the political wisdom of Thucydides has been superseded in modern international policy.

Four Centuries of English Letters. By Baptiste Scoones. (C. K. Paul and Co.)—Few things in literature are more attractive than correspondence, and this collection is doubly welcome, seeing that we cannot recall many, if any, attempts of a similar kind, and certainly none which occupies the ground in so complete a fashion. This work begins with the Paston Letters and ends with a note from the Prince Consort to the Crown Princess of Prussia. The letters are arranged in centuries, and the earliest section, 1450–1600, is of necessity the briefest. The Pastons, Donne, and James Howell are the largest contributors, and there are notable letters by More, Ascham, Raleigh, and Walton, and one admirable note from Bacon to the founder of the Bodleian Library. The second section begins with Henrietta Maria and Charles I., and ends with Addison, Swift, Pope, and the men of Queen Anne's age. Of course as we advance further into the volume the field of selection grows wider and more unmanageable, and Mr. Scoones has shown great discernment in his choice, though much admirable matter is excluded for want of space. The third section takes us into the heart of the letter-writing age, the period which extends from Wesley and Johnson to Keats and Hood. The final section is a very brief one. Macaulay, Thackeray, Kingsley, and Dickens are its greatest names. On the whole the selection deserves high praise, though the omission of all quotation from Sir Philip Sidney, Prior, Gay, and Charlotte Brönte, excites some surprise and regret. The introductory notes are neither obtrusive nor useless, but admirable for concision and propriety.

Household Science. Edited by Rev. J. P. Faunthorpe. (Stanford.)—This little book is intended as a reading book for schools, to add to village lending libraries, to give as prizes in Sunday Schools, or as presents to young servants. The readings are couched in clear, straightforward language, and discuss in a sensible and taking manner almost every question on which girls in service ought to have some elementary knowledge—air and ventilation; food, cookery, and drink; heat, clothing, and washing; dressmaking, health, home, and money; tending the sick, and a variety of other subjects; and the work never fails in being equally lucid, accurate, and practical. Collected in their present form, they will prove useful as a reading book for home instruction as well as for a regular school book.

A Guide to Modern English History. By William Cory. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—Mr. Cory tells his readers in a prefatory note that his book “has grown out of an attempt made some years ago to give some account of English politics to a foreign guest who was at that time reading English history for an examination at one of the Inns of Court.” It is a book of great ability. It is a chronicle of English and its connected European history from the peace of Amiens, but the events are very summarily stated, and some knowledge of history beyond the information afforded by the work itself is necessary for an intelligent use of it. Its distinctive feature is its philosophic exposition of the facts of history, and its application to acts of legislation and principles of political economy. It is shrewd, epigrammatic, abounding in apothegms and witty generalisations; while the terse, nervous style is full of quaint turns and happy expressions. Though Mr. Cory's admiration of his own country is very great, his judgments are candid and well-balanced. His estimate of the Duke of Wellington's political character is specially noteworthy, and the whole book appears to be an able *résumé* of our modern political history, illumined by just principles and admirable common sense.

Chaucer. By A. W. Ward. (Macmillan and Co.)—Mr. Ward's little volume is the crowning tribute to the merits and memory, the "mirth" and the "doctrine" of our father-poet, who was also the first to sing to us in English of "love." Nothing has been omitted that the most careful inquiry has been able to ascertain or to verify respecting our author, at once so robust and so genial; and the story of his life, somewhat saddened by domestic unhappiness, but touchingly relieved by the poet's love for his son "little Lewis," for whom he wrote his treatise on the Astrolabie, is carefully and thoughtfully delineated; while the light of the surroundings of the time, so childish, yet so chivalrous, is fully thrown on the central figure.

Pope. By Leslie Stephen. (Macmillan and Co.)—Mr. Stephen is specially qualified, by his intimate knowledge of the period of Pope and of the literature of his time, to write the biography of the poet. He has drawn his materials from the works of Warburton, Bowles, and Elwin, and has given to the world a brief but accurate sketch of the greatest of our second-rate poets. His life was not a happy one, and our author has ably sketched the insatiable vanity, the hypersensitiveness, the bitterness, and above all the want of principle, which made him commit many a mean action, which his wonderful talent and energy cannot make us forget. The careful criticisms of the chief publications of Pope will be especially valuable to students of eighteenth century literature.

Selections from Cæsar.—Gallic War. G. L. Bennett. (Rivingtons.)—**Second Latin Writer.** G. L. Bennett. (Rivingtons.) **First Steps in Latin.** F. Ritchie. (Rivingtons.) **Stories from Ovid.** In Hexameter Verse. R. W. Taylor. (Rivingtons.) **First Greek Writer.** A. Sidgwick. (Rivingtons.) Educational publications have become such an important item in the literature of the day, both on account of their improved quality and of their number, that it is impossible to omit all notice of them in any account of the books of the year. We cannot fail to remark the attractive form in which everything classical is now presented to the public, and on what a labour-saving system these steps to the classics are offered to the student. The stories from Ovid are full of notes, illustrative references, and arguments of the text. The first steps in Latin introduce Accidence and its practical application at the same time, instead of postponing the Syntax till a knowledge of Grammar is attained. Mr. Bennett's Second Latin Writer follows as a sequel to his First Latin Writer, noticed last year, and is in many respects on the principle of Mr. Sidgwick's introduction to Greek Prose Composition, which has been so successfully adopted. As an introduction to the latter and more advanced work, Mr. Sidgwick now offers a most excellent preliminary course in his First Greek Writer.

Chapters from the Physical History of the Earth. By Arthur Nichols. (C. K. Paul and Co.)—A clearly written little work, serving as an introduction to palæontology and geology, and which will prove useful to the student, as it presents a comprehensive outline of the earth's history from the earliest times to the present day, which may afterwards be filled up from more elaborate treatises by those who wish to pursue the subject systematically. The author would also be glad, he says in the preface, "if he could hold out a helping hand to that numerous body of intelligent men and women who are striving after self-education with very inadequate means and opportunities, and are compelled to rely chiefly upon the popular scientific lectures which have of late years become valuable aids to education."

Geography of Northern Europe. By Rev. C. E. Moberly. (Rivingtons.)—A useful manual for schools or private schools, containing a concise and clear description of the physical features of Europe, with sufficient political facts to render it practically useful, but the names and statistics are not overcrowded. Paragraphs in smaller type contain historical and other interesting details, probably intended to be omitted by the less advanced students and studied in a second course of lessons.

A Ride in Petticoats and Slippers. By Captain E. H. Colville. (Sampson Low and Co.)—This is the narrative of a journey undertaken by Captain Colville and his wife through the south of Morocco to the Algerian frontier, a route never before traversed by an Englishman. His chief object was to survey the land, that he might possess a personal knowledge of the nature of the country, and of the resources of the Moors, in the event—which he considers imminent—of England being called upon to resist the encroachments of the French; for he as a soldier considers the annexation of Morocco to be a desirable and laudable act on the part of England. After elaborate preparations in the shape of a disguise for his wife, &c., it is with a certain sense of disappointment that we read of the safe arrival of the travellers at the Algerian frontier, without a single adventure worthy of the name, eleven days after their departure from Fez. Nevertheless Captain Colville is so lively a narrator, and tells a good story so well, that the humorous if trivial incidents and slight discomforts of their journey make pleasant reading. We also gain a slight amount of information, if not of a very valuable kind, from the survey of a new bit of country. The scenery appears to be uninteresting, and the people are utterly barbarous, shut out from all enlightenment and civilisation by a corrupt despotism.

The New Playground. By Alexander A. Knox. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—One of the pleasantest and most unconventional books of travel that have appeared for a long time. It is a record, written in a lively unpretending manner, of a winter and spring spent in Algeria—nearly six months in the town of Algiers and on the heights of Mustapha, and between two and three more in excursions about the three provinces of Algiers, Oram, and Constantine. "Where shall we spend the winter?" has become a common cry amongst many English people who, for one reason or another, are unable to pass the dark months at home. The avowed object of Mr. Knox's work is to show that, for those who are not strictly speaking invalids, Algiers can furnish some of the most beautiful scenery, and the brightest and sunniest climate to be found anywhere within four days' post of London. It is impossible in a short notice to give an adequate idea of the charm of this book. Mr. Knox contrives to bring before his readers a vivid picture of the aspect and of the life of Algiers. He relates his own adventures in a most amusing way, without any of the egotism which is only too common in such cases. His descriptions of the scenery where they occur (for he avoids all gush and tall writing) are admirably calculated to inspire the inhabitants of foggy smoky London with envy and longing. The book is full of interest for all readers, especially the chapter on "Algeria under the French rule;" but for all who are weary of the Riviera, and do not care to go so far as Madeira or the Nile cataracts for their winter resort, the practical hints about hotels, points of interest and beauty, means of locomotion, will be exceedingly valuable, and still more the clear idea which the unexaggerated simple statement of facts will enable them to form of the kind of life they will

be likely to lead in Algeria, of the resources which the place affords, the climate, and the scenery.

South America. By A. Gallenga. (Chapman and Hall.)—This is a reproduction in one volume of letters to the *Times*, for which newspaper M. Gallenga paid a special and prolonged visit to the chief states of South America, with a view to ascertain the situation of affairs in each. He first visited the Isthmus of Panama, and his graphic description of the scenery during his four hours' journey from Colon to Panama, the distance being 47 miles and the fare £5, prepares the reader for the interesting narrative that follows. He also gives an account of the country through which the projected canal is to pass, and refers to its plan, magnitude, and prospects. He next proceeded to Peru, and in due course to Chili, Uruguay, the Argentine Republic, Paraguay, and Brazil, visiting the principal places of interest or importance in those states. The contents of the book are not confined, however, to picturesque descriptions of the wild and wonderful scenery through which his tour lay, but M. Gallenga has furnished a great deal of useful information, statistical as well as historical, concerning the past, present, and future of the South American Republics, together with minute details as to the habits and characteristics of their varied populations? Such a combination has not been before presented to European readers, and certainly not in so readable and attractive a form. His experiences of railway travelling over the Peruvian Andes are told with a power and reality too vivid perhaps for comfortable reflection, but no pen could have better described the varied beauties of tropical landscape, or the wild grandeur of the Andes ranges. The book made its appearance opportunely, when the attention of Europe was drawn to stirring events like the war between Chili and Peru, the revolution in the Argentine Republic, and the start of the Panama Canal scheme, with all of which it carefully and conscientiously deals.

Portugal, Old and New. By Oswald Crawford. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.) This pleasant and interesting book is the result of several years' personal observation of the manners, customs, and industry of the Portuguese, their government, the antiquities and physical aspects of the land; and Mr. Crawford has prefixed an account of the early history and literature, and the gradual rise of Portugal; its final separation in the middle of the twelfth century from the rest of the Iberian peninsula; the long racial strife with the Moors, which, beginning early in the eighth century and reaching its height under Alfonso Henriquez, the founder of the Portuguese monarchy, was only terminated in the sixteenth, after the people had imbibed from the cultured and generous Saracens something of their learning, their chivalry, and their civilisation—all these events are narrated with sufficient detail to render them vivid, and yet without diffuseness. The early literature of the Portuguese seems less worthy of the minute account which Mr. Crawford gives us, since the very names of the authors he mentions are almost unknown. Passing on to the consideration of the social condition of modern Portugal, the author enters into an elaborate defence of that country from the accusation so often brought against her of being a century and a half behind the rest of Europe; and he maintains that the mass of the people enjoys a larger share of happiness and well-being from the very circumstance that they have not taken the lead in the social improvements of modern days. Mr. Crawford speaks with authority on the condition of agriculture in Portugal, and the chapters devoted to this subject are highly interesting. For the rest we refer

the reader to the book itself. If he purposes a visit to Portugal he will gain from it much valuable information about inns, modes of travelling, objects of beauty or of interest. If he has no such prospect or intention, he can gain from it a very fair idea of the people and country at the cost of little trouble to himself, and will moreover find in the book where withal to amuse an idle hour.

Unbeaten Tracks in Japan. By Isabella L. Bird. (John Murray.)

—Miss Bird tells us plainly that hers is not a book on Japan, but a narrative of travels in Japan, and an attempt to contribute something to the sum of knowledge of the present condition of the country; and she adds that it “was not till she had travelled for some months in the interior of the main island and in Yezo that my materials were novel enough to render the contribution worth making. From Nikko northwards my route was altogether off the beaten track, and had never been traversed in its entirety by any European. I lived among the Japanese, and saw their mode of living in regions unaffected by European contact. As a lady travelling alone, and the first European lady who had been seen in several districts through which my route lay, my experiences differed more or less widely from those of preceding travellers.” Miss Bird travelled for her health, but she never fails to appreciate what is new and strange, and really does not mind discomfort and unaccustomed ways. Her book suffers under the disadvantage of being written in the form of letters, a plan which occasions redundancy; but in spite of this defect she describes scenery and character well, and in addition to rare faculties of observation she possesses a keen sense of humour. Her account of the half-savage peoples of the interior, revealing as it does a district entirely off the beaten track, is the most valuable and interesting part of the work. On the whole a vivid idea of modern Japanese life may be obtained from the book, which is written in a pleasant lively style, and discloses at every sentence the refined and kindly spirit of the traveller.

The Peerage, Baronetage, and Knightage of the British Empire for 1880. By Joseph Foster.—This rival to Peerages such as Burke, Lodge, and Debrett, is a most imposing volume. Mr. Foster justifies its appearance by a desire to improve the “editorial standard” of books of this class, for he says that for a long period “no advance worthy of the name has been made either in matter of pedigree, accuracy of coat armour, or heraldic illustrations, nor has any care been taken to exclude false titles, or those which may have been honestly assumed upon insufficient evidence.” There is an unusual amount of biographical information in connection with the pedigrees, both lineal and collateral, and as much of it has been obtained first-hand from private authentic sources, it should be reliable. Particular attention has been paid to the Baronets and their history, but the unique feature of the book is its “Chaos,” containing all disputed Baronetcies, and representing as far as possible the claims of each, but not judging their merits. Mr. Foster holds in supreme contempt the illustrations of existing Peerages, and classifies them with those of “coach-painters and silversmiths,” his own being what he himself calls “spirited,” but what some will certainly think pretentious, if not vulgar. If he had been less “spirited” with his supporters, and had drawn the shields with their ordinary heraldic shadings instead of in cold outline, the value of the book would have been enhanced. Taste in such matters is sure to differ, and though to many it will seem unnatural to make a crest larger than the shield beneath it, or to crowd a coat-of-arms with huge

supporters and ornamented flourishes that almost conceal it, such vagaries are not forbidden in the fanciful domain of heraldry. A huge book like this cannot be wholly free from mistakes, but being intended primarily as a book of reference, it should be less open to blame in this respect than it is. Credit is due to Mr. Foster for the labour and trouble this undertaking must have cost him, and if its mission to educate public taste in heraldic design and to serve as a trustworthy book of reference does not fare as well as he hopes, it may perhaps prove its fitness to accompany, but not displace, such well-tried veterans as Burke and Lodge.

The Ingenious Knight Don Quixote de la Mancha. A new translation by A. J. Duffield. (C. Kegan Paul and Co.)—Mr. Duffield's translation of Cervantes' great work is designed to supply a serious want, to give a rendering of that immortal story without the interpolations and omissions which have made all previous English versions at once coarse and untruthful. "It seems to me," he says in the dedication to Mr. Gladstone, "that the time has come when his great work should be read, not only for the beauty of its excellence, the charm of its style, for its sweet humour and tender compassion, but in order to perceive more clearly and enjoy more thoroughly 'the gross and scope' of that jest, as well as for the honour of its author and the glory of the work which he wrought. For he was one of the most renowned refiners of taste and manners of whom Christendom can boast, and though dead yet speaks in all the languages of the polite nations of the world." Mr. Duffield shows himself deeply read in Spanish literature, and his account of Cervantes and the copious notes to each chapter will be extremely valuable to students; while the general reader will give him cordial thanks for a complete and pure rendering of a work, without a knowledge of which no education is complete, in a style at once terse and flowing, idiomatic without pedantry, simple without affectation.

The publication of the following prose works during the year, should also be noted:—The "Life of the Prince Consort," vol. v., completing the work. (Smith, Elder and Co.); Kinglake's "Crimea," vol. vi. (Blackwood); Prince Metternich's "Autobiography," vols. i. and ii. (Bentley); Darwin's "Movements of Plants" (John Murray); "Young Ireland," by Sir C. Gavan Duffy (Cassell); "Italy and her Invaders" (John Hodgkin, Clarendon Press); Barton's "History of the Reign of Queen Anne" (Blackwood); Hull's "Coalfields of Great Britain" (Stanford); "The Land of Gilead," by Laurence Oliphant (Blackwood); and Schliemann's "Ilios" (Murray). Amongst the new volumes of poetry should be mentioned Mr. Swinburne's "Studies in Song" (Chatto and Windus), and the "Song of Life" (Kegan Paul and Co.), by the author of the "Epic of Hades" &c., a production which confirmed the author in that high rank among contemporary poets to which his previous works has deservedly raised him.

Among the more remarkable works of fiction published in 1880 we may mention "Endymion," by the Earl of Beaconsfield, a political novel in the style of his earlier works; "The Trumpet Major," another pastoral from the pen of Thomas Hardy; "The Duke's Daughters," by Anthony Trollope; "Mary Anerley," by Blackmore. "Reata," "A Modern Greek Heroine," and "The Lady Resident" are three stories by new writers which appear to be sufficiently original to be noticed here as above the average of ordinary fiction.

ART, DRAMA, AND MUSIC.

I. THE FINE ARTS.

Archæological Discoveries.—The review of the Fine Arts during the year 1880 may fitly be prefaced with some notice of those great discoveries in the field of classical archæology, the results of which belong to all time and to the whole civilised world. At Pergamus, the excavations undertaken by the Prussian Government have been rewarded in unexampled measure. The magnificent sculptured piece of the Gigantomachia has been found amongst the ruins of the Great Altar which it formerly decorated; the sites of the Temple of Minerva, of the Augusteum, and of the Gymnasium, together with other works of the dynasty of Attalus, have been brought to light. Not only is the world thus enriched by the possession of splendid works of art rescued from destruction, but the student of classical history and art thus obtains complete materials hitherto wanting for the examination of that art which, flourishing under the successors of Alexander, formed the connecting link between the glories of Athens and the achievements of Rome. As Professor Conze has remarked, we now have, in the remains of the splendidly decorated buildings with which the Acropolis of Pergamus was enriched under the dynasty of Attalus, a monument which gives as firm a standpoint for the history of art in the second century before the Christian era as does the Parthenon for the history of art in 400 B.C. From Olympia, also, comes news of further results, not the least important of which has been the happy discovery of the almost complete figure of the infant Dionysos missing from the noble Hermes revealed to the admiration of Europe in 1878. At Athens, the Archæological Society have recommenced excavations at Dipylum. The Theatre, mentioned by Xenophon, at the Piræus, close to the bay of Zea, has been recently discovered; at the entrance to the Acropolis various important fragments of the Temple of Nikê Apteros have been unearthed by Herr Bohn; a fine statue of a Mœnad asleep was amongst the results of other excavations; and at Delos, the exertions of the French have been rewarded by many marble statues, and the finding of a private house, not unlike the dwellings of Pompeii. At Rome, the Servian walls have been traced, the works commenced in the Forum and at other points have been vigorously carried on, but the most remarkable find of the year has been made in the examination of a tomb at the foot of Aurelian's wall, in that portion of the Farnesina gardens expropriated for the widening of the bed of the Tiber and its embankment. The inscription above the door declared the mausoleum to have been raised in memory of Sulpicia Platorina and her father; and the statue of Sulpicia, as well as a statue of the Emperor Tiberius, and a fine portrait bust of a young girl, were obtained entire, together with nine sculptured cinerary urns of exquisite beauty, various important inscriptions, and smaller articles of value. England also has contributed her share, this year, to the long list of archæological discoveries. Half-way between Brading and Sandown, at a place called Morton's Farm, a Roman Villa has been excavated. The principal room (16 feet square) is paved in a fine mosaic divided into several compartments. In a circular centre is a head of Dionysos, with flowing hair, accompanied

by the Thyrsus. One of the other divisions depicts a curious scene : on the left stands a human figure with a cock's head, dressed in a tunic, and having, instead of feet, claws with a spur. This figure is placed in front of a small house raised high, with a ladder up to it, and on the right-hand side are two winged animals of doubtful species. Another compartment shows a youthful figure holding a trident, which possibly represents the gladiator termed *retiarius*. The injury done by time and rough usage to this pavement has been so great that little can be made out of the designs employed in the rest of the floor, and that of the other rooms, which have been laid bare, consists only of a rude kind of tessellated work. Some coarse pottery, fragments of wall-painting, and a coin of Gallienus, which would fix the date of the villa at about 263 A.D., have also been found on this spot.

National Institutions of Art.—The British Museum.—The excavations carried on by the British Government at Babylon have been richly rewarded during 1880. A large number of cases have arrived at the British Museum, containing inscribed tablets and other objects, amongst which we notice a Phœnician inscription, three terra-cotta cylinders of Sennacherib, and an Assyrian bronze helmet. A fine marble bust of an empress, or member of an imperial family, has also been recently purchased from Signor Castellani, which is an interesting addition to the Roman portraits in the Museum. The Trustees have also been presented with a curious bust in white marble by Ruysbrach, of the great Duke of Marlborough, and many other important additions have been made to the various collections. The Print Room, besides the purchase of a numerous collection of German broadsides chiefly dating from the latter half of the sixteenth century, made the following important acquisitions at the Schlösser sale : Albert Altdorfer's "Pyramus and Thisbe" (proof before the retouching); Joost Amman's "Frederick, Bishop of Wurtzburg"; F. V. Bochott's "St. Bartholomew;" and "The Virgin with the Infant Christ" by the same master. Some fine drawings have also been recently acquired for this department :—1. The whole-length figure of a man in armour, executed in water-colours of blue and white on light blue paper, and considered by Mr. Reid as possibly the work of Manuel Deutsch. 2. The drawing in pen and ink made by Moretto for his well-known "St. John in the Desert." 3. A sketch by one of the Wouvermans, in bistre with a pen, of two sportsmen, one of whom is on horseback. 4. Studies in silver point and white on salmon-coloured paper for two draped figures, which is conjecturally attributed to Fra F. Lippi. 5. A. Altdorfer, a "Last Judgment" drawn in ink with a pen, a fine work which has unfortunately suffered much from damp. 6. A whole-length figure of the Virgin seated, with two angels supporting her robes at her knees : this sketch is executed in red chalk, and may possibly be by Parmigiano. 7 and 8. Two landscapes by Cuyp, drawn with white and touched with Indian ink. 9. A drawing of the Virgin, with Christ and St. John. 10. A design, made with the pen in bistre and black ink, representing the Triumphs of the Gods, and intended to be wrought in metal for a salver. The Print Room now affords extraordinary advantages to students, for in addition to its own collections there are an immense number of photographs from the drawings by old masters preserved in the different galleries of Europe. The whole mass is in course of rearrangement, and the works of each master are to be brought together, so that the labour of comparison and reference will be rendered easy. It is also proposed to give the Print Room accommodation (of which it stands

grievously in need), in the course of carrying out the extensive alterations which are now in progress at the Museum, by erecting a new structure in the Secretary's garden. The central court, at present occupied by furnaces, will be roofed in so as to afford an additional lighted space for the exhibition of the works of classical sculpture, which are at present unhappily stowed away in dark and narrow vaults, where their study is all but impossible; and we have also to congratulate ourselves on the removal of the hideous wooden sheds which have so long disgraced the front of the building, and the destruction of which was simultaneous with the removal of Dr. Günther and the Natural History collections to South Kensington.

The National Gallery.—Important changes have been made in the regulations of the National Gallery. Not only has the practice of closing the collections during the month of October been abandoned, but arrangements have been made by which the public can obtain access more freely, for they are now admitted on students' days by the payment of sixpence each. The usual report of the Director, Mr. Burton, was issued in March, and contained full particulars as to the condition of the Gallery, and the expenditure of the Government grant and of the bequest funds. The most important of the purchases made and exhibited during the year was that of the famous and beautiful "*Vierge aux Rochers*," the large Leonardo da Vinci of which the duplicate is in the Long Gallery of the Louvre. There has been much dispute as to which is the finer picture, but on the whole opinion seems to tell in favour of the work now acquired by the nation from the Earl of Suffolk. A fine triptych by Borgognone also deserves special mention, and four interesting works—three of which were bequeathed by Mrs. Joseph Henry Green, and the fourth by Miss Solly—have been recently hung. The fourth, which is but one of many bequests by the daughters of the late Mr. Solly, is a Babhuizen "*Sea View off a Port, with Shipping*," dated 1681. The three bequeathed by Mrs. Green are of the early Flemish school, and of great value. 1. "*The Deposition from the Cross*" is a capital example in the manner of the school of Roger van der Weyden; 2. "*The Adoration of the Kings*," although it is signed A. W., has also been attributed to the same master; and 3. "*The Head of John the Baptist accompanied by Angels*," is also a Flemish work, probably of the late fifteenth century. In conclusion, it must be remembered that the liberality of the Duke of Norfolk has enabled the Trustees to exhibit during many months an unquestionable and noble Holbein, "*The Duchess of Milan*."

The National Portrait Gallery.—The National Portrait Gallery is rapidly improving, and has received an important addition in the gift of Haydon's large painting of the Anti-Slavery Convention, which contains 130 portraits. Amongst many other gifts and purchases may be specially noticed Queen Mary II. by Netscher; Prince Rupert by Sir P. Lely; Milton at the age of 62, when blind, engraved by W. Faithorne; B. West, a bust in marble by Chantrey; Faithorne, by Walker; and Copley Fielding by Sir Henry Boxall. Autograph letters and other MSS. have been added to the collections of the Gallery, the Trustees of which complain of want of space, whilst acknowledging the grant of increased accommodation made by the Treasury.

Public Works.—The public works which have been executed in this country have not been very numerous nor—with one great exception—very important. The statue of Lord Byron, executed in bronze by Mr. Bell, and

erected behind Apsley House, still awaits the pedestal of Greek marble offered by the descendants of those for whom he lost his life. The interior decorations of the Houses of Parliament have been proceeded with, and Mr. Herbert has completed, in his own studio, his picture, "The Judgment of Daniel," for the Peers' Robing Room. It forms the companion to the "Moses bringing down the Law," which was painted on the wall at Westminster. Mr. Boehm's statue of Lord John Russell has also been placed in the Hall. The event of the year, in this respect, has been Sir Frederick Leighton's large work, "The Arts of War," executed for one of the lunettes at South Kensington, and "inaugurated" by the Queen in person. The design is executed in Mr. Parry's method of spirit fresco, previously employed by the President in his mural painting at Lyndhurst Church, which has excellently stood the test of a long period of years. It represents the preparations made for the defence of a city by its inhabitants. The scene is laid at the entrance of a fortress of Italian-Gothic architecture, and the figures, which are larger than life, and very numerous, are dressed in the beautiful costume of the Italian fourteenth century. The work is Sir Frederick's masterpiece, and undoubtedly one of the most important works, if not the most important, of this class produced in England during the present century.

Public Exhibitions of Art.—The Royal Academy.—The Royal Academicians again last winter gave the public an opportunity of seeing some of those masterpieces which exist in such numbers in the great houses and palaces of England. The most interesting feature of this exhibition was the series of works by Holbein, or of his school, placed in Gallery IV., but the Spanish pictures contributed by Mr. J. C. Robinson were of extraordinary interest, and the schools of Italy were represented by several fine examples. Of the Holbeins, must be noted : first, the most splendid example of his work in this country, the Duke of Norfolk's "Duchess of Milan," a whole-length life-size portrait supposed to have been executed for Henry VIII., and once in the Royal collection at Westminster. At some distance after this remarkable picture came other fine examples : portraits of Thomas Howard, third Duke of Norfolk ; of Lady Guildford and her husband ; of Sir W. and Lady Butts ; of Derich Berck ; of John Reshimer ; and the wonderfully happy rendering of that type of the astute, keen-eyed man of business which goes by the name of "The Merchant of the Stahlfhof." Several fine landscapes by Cuyp ; a genuine Terburg, "The Glass of Lemonade ;" Jan Steen's "Guitar Lesson ;" Metzger's "Tête-à-tête ;" an unusually noble Vandyck, "Lord Mowbray and Maltravers (lent by the Duke of Norfolk) ; a fine Tintoretto, the portrait of P. Paruta, belonging to Sir F. Leighton ; the Great Guido, called *Il Diamante*, from Narford Hall ; a noble "Portrait of a Philosopher" by Moroni ; and a beautiful "Virgin and Child" of the Umbrian School, lent by Mr. Cyril Flower, were amongst the most noteworthy of the other contributions to the division representing the "Old Masters ;" but Gainsborough, Reynolds, Hogarth, and other English painters were also represented, and in one or two instances by works of no ordinary interest. The spring exhibition of the Academy showed a total of 1,658 works, or about seventy-five more than last year, and was probably the largest mass of pictures, sculptures, and drawings hitherto displayed in this country. Mr. Poynter's fine work, "A Visit to Æsculapius," was purchased by the Academicians, from the Chantry fund, and well deserved the honour

thus conferred. Mr. Alma-Tadema contributed "Fredegonda, Queen of the Franks, watching the espousals of her husband Chilperic with the Arian-Visigothic, Princess Galeswinthe," which is one of his finest and most dignified works. The same painter also sent "Not at Home"—Roman ladies denying themselves to an unwelcome male visitor; and "Spring Festival"—a marvellous dance and procession in honour of Ceres and the returning season through meadows gemmed with flowers. "Sister's Kiss," "The Light of the Harem," "Psmathe," "Crenais," and "Iostephane," represented the President, Sir F. Leighton, who, long absorbed by his great work at South Kensington, could not be expected to do more for Burlington House. Both Mr. Millais and Mr. Watts sent portraits of themselves, painted in compliance with the request of the authorities of the Uffizi, who are trying to revive the custom which gave them the famous Collection of Portraits of Painters. Mr. Valentine Prinsep's giant canvas, entitled "The Imperial assemblage at Delhi," was justly a great attraction to the lovers of spectacular art, and amongst other works of more than average interest may be cited, Mr. Millais' noble portrait of "The Right Honourable John Bright," his "Miss Hermione Schenley," the portrait of a little girl called "Cuckoo," and his strangely pathetic rendering of another little girl in a black frock, holding yellow daffodils in her hands, named Catharine Muriel Cowell Stepney. The chief work contributed by Mr. Leslie, "All that glitters is not gold" must also be noted, as well as Mr. Hook's coast scenes, "Home with the Tide," "Mussel Garden," and "Sea Tools; Mr. Henry Moore's remarkably poetical and nobly wrought "Beachèd Margent of the Sea;" Mr. Oakes' Landscapes, "A Hazy Morning" and "The Flintstone Coast;" Mr. Rivière's "Last Spoonful,"—a group of greedy ducks and poultry fed by a little girl, who, with dogs and gobbling turkey in attendance, shares amongst the birds the contents of the cup in her hands; Mr. Boughton's graceful "Evangeline;" Mr. Perugini's "Siesta;" Mr. Orchardson's "Napoleon on board the Bellerophon," the effect of which was, unfortunately, marred by the self-consciousness of all the figures; and Mr. Pettie's cleverly sketched "His Grace," representing the whole-length figure of a courtier dressed in a fancy dress, and carrying himself with the insolence and flippancy proper to the Court of Charles II. There was, however, in this last "Academy," very little work that challenged admiration, although much evidence of a decidedly higher standard of execution, and on the average, perhaps, a more virile choice of subject than we see if we contrast it with the exhibitions of fifteen or twenty years ago. The sculpture continues to be more or less feeble, but Mr. Armstead, the new Associate, had two good busts and a spirited and well-designed decorative panel, "The Courage of David," destined to be placed in the Guards' Chapel, St. James's Park. The terra-cottas by Miss Chaplin, "Feline Wrestlers" and "Study of an Elephant," were in every respect accomplished and noteworthy works. Besides Mr. Poynter's "Visit to Æsculapius," the Academy purchased from the Chantrey Fund Mr. Orchardson's "On board H.M.S. Bellerophon;" Mr. Davis's "Returning to the Fold," and Mr. Brett's marine panorama, a vast calm expanse of luminous sea and sky flecked with white sails and clouds, and bearing the melo-dramatic title of "Britannia's Realm." Messrs. Vicat Cole, landscape painter, and J. L. Pearson, architect, have been elected R.A.'s, and we have to note the deaths of E. W. Cooke, F.R.S. R.A., of E. M. Barry R.A., and Thomas Landseer, A.R.A.

The Grosvenor Gallery.—The Grosvenor Gallery exhibited during the winter a remarkable collection of studies for pictures and portions of pictures by living artists, the beauty and excellence of which in many cases—as notably in that of Mr. W. Richmond—seemed out of all proportion to the level reached by their producers in their finished works. Some very fine examples were contributed by the distinguished President of the Royal Academy; Mr. Poynter was well represented by a fine “Study of Armour for the ‘St. George’ in the Houses of Parliament,” by “Studies for Psyche,” and similar works; Mr. Legros, principally, by a magnificent drawing of the “Townley Venus;” Mr. Burne Jones by a splendid “Study of Drapery for Three Trumpeters in the Procession of Psyche;” “Studies for Girls on Staircase,” “Studies for Armour of Perseus,” and others too numerous to mention; Mr. Moore’s “Drapery Cartoon for Sea Gulls,” and “Two studies of Hands” were especially noteworthy, but besides these drawings, the gallery also showed a small collection of good Dutch work by modern artists, among whom M. Alma Tadema permitted himself to be classed, filling the place of honour with his “Amateurs.” M. Mesdag’s excellent “At Anchor,” M. Van Borsden’s “Dutch Meadows,” were capital specimens, amongst others, of the best prevailing method of modern painters in Holland. The summer exhibition was distinguished by a fine group of contributions by that consummate workman—after his own fashion—M. Bastien Lepage: “Les Foins,” “Mes Parens,” “Portrait de mon Grandpère,” “Portrait de Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt,” “La Communiant,” and one or two other canvasses, showed this most individual painter in almost his full range. Mr. Watts with his “Daphne” and his fine portrait of “W. Morris” was also in great strength; and Mr. Tadema—in his “Question,” a brilliant little episode of love-meeting beneath favourable skies, on the shore of a sea lit with southern sun—had found a fortunate subject which gave a popular interest too seldom lasting to his brilliant executive achievements. Mr. Burne Jones’ “The Golden Stairs” attracted great admiration, and Mr. Millais’ vigorous portrait of Mrs. Jopling had a deserved success. Mr. Richmond was better represented by his portrait of Mr. Holman Hunt than by his ambitious unfinished picture, “The Song of Miriam,” and the list of things noteworthy must not be closed without reference to Signor Costa’s noble landscape, “The Gulf of Spezzia from Lerici.”

The Society of Painters in Water-colours.—The level of general attainment which has risen markedly in our leading exhibitions has not been accompanied by any corresponding rise in the quality of the work displayed by either of our Water-colour Societies or at the Dudley Gallery. Two exhibitions have as usual been held by the Society of Painters in Water-colours, chiefly noticeable for the works of Mr. H. Moore, “Beaching Boats;” Mr. Boyce, “Shillingford” and “Thorpe;” and Mrs. Allingham. Mrs. Angell’s “Birds,” exhibited in May, showed masterly work. Four new Associates have been elected:—Messrs. W. E. Walker, T. J. Watson, E. A. Waterlow, and Walter Field, and from the ranks of the Associates four new members have been chosen:—Messrs. H. Moore, S. Read, O. W. Brierly and H. Wallis.

Institute of Painters in Water-colours.—Several drawings of great excellence by Mr. Boughton, Mr. Fulleylove, and Mr. Hine distinguished the summer exhibition of this body.

The Dudley Gallery.—Two exhibitions were, as usual, held at the Dudley Gallery: the first, containing some five hundred paintings in oil, the

best of which were by M. Lhermitte, Mr. Aumonier, Mr. G. O. Leslie ; the second, an exhibition of works in black and white, which was not especially interesting. The finest examples—in respect of harmonious and suggestive arrangement of light and shade—were undoubtedly those contributed by M. Lhermitte, of which perhaps “*Le Chœur de Notre Dame*,” was the most dignified specimen, and Mr. Waterhouse’s “*A Greek Play*” also deserves mention on account of the simplicity and “intention” of the invention and treatment.

The Burlington Fine Arts Club.—An exhibition was held this year, in the rooms of the Club, of water-colour drawings by deceased English artists born in or subsequent to 1800, or who, born in the last century, have died since the exhibition held at the Club in 1871.

The Fine Art Society.—The list of public exhibitions during the year must not be closed without reference to the unusually interesting exhibition of one hundred and twenty-five water-colour drawings and woodcuts by John Bewick, held in the Gallery of the Fine Art Society in New Bond Street. The originals of the illustrations to the famous “*British Birds*” were lent by the Misses Bewick. They were remarkable for a beauty of elaboration and delicacy for which those who knew the great Newcastle engraver only by his woodcuts were unprepared.

Legislation.—Parliament, during the year 1880, voted the following sums in aid of art :—In direct payments, prizes, &c., to encourage instruction in Art : to England and Wales, 65,519*l.* ; to Scotland, 8,330*l.* ; and to Ireland—inclusive of the vote of 6,408*l.* for the National Art Training School, and Metropolitan School, Dublin—7,609*l.* ; in services common to both Science and Art instruction, 27,018*l.* ; to salaries of the Science and Art Department, 9,298*l.* ; to the South Kensington Museum, 41,241*l.* for administration ; to the Bethnal Green Museum, for administration, 7,420*l.* ; for the purchases and circulation of works of art, 20,052*l.* ; to the Edinburgh Museum of Science and Art, for administration 8,397*l.*, for purchases 2,000*l.* ; to the Dublin Museum, 4,376*l.* for administration, and 1,600*l.* for purchases. A grant of 300*l.* in aid of the Hibernian Academy was also voted, and a sum of 29,620*l.* for services common to all the different divisions of the department, but this of course includes much totally unconnected with Art.

No fresh legislation as regards the Fine Arts has marked the present year, for the Bill on Copyright brought in by Government, but not carried in 1879, and which proposed to vest the copyright of works of art, in the absence of any agreement made at the time of the sale, in the purchaser, provoked widespread dissatisfaction amongst artists, and the matter for the present has been dropped.

II. THE DRAMA.

It must be sorrowfully admitted that so far as the production of original dramas of the higher class is concerned, the year 1880 shows no advance. Though some few new plays have achieved a certain run, a larger number have appeared only to court emphatic condemnation ; while the most successful from a popular point of view are hardly of sufficient merit to add much to the reputation of native dramatists. Accepting, as is perhaps the safest course, popularity as the test of success, Mr. Byron’s “*Upper Crust*,” produced at the Folly on March 31, is among the most notable. Essentially a low comedy, it afforded Mr. Toole, who is understood to have paid a very

high price for it, an excellent opportunity for the display of a talent *sui generis* unrivalled. Its run outlasted the year. In another field altogether, "The World," a sensational melodrama, the joint production of Messrs. Merritt, Pettit, and A. Harris, had a remarkable run at Drury Lane, its success being due in a great measure to admirable scenery and stage arrangement. More ambitious in aim, though scarcely so fortunate, was Mr. W. G. Wills' "Ninon," an historical drama founded on a very free use of the incidents of the French Revolution. It was produced at the Adelphi in February, and achieved a very fair success, to which the fine acting of Miss Wallis in the title rôle contributed as much as the intrinsic merits of the piece. "Midge," a play from the pens of Messrs. Burnett and Martin, supported by the popularity of Miss Jennie Lee, achieved a fair success at the Royalty, where it was produced on the 12th January, under the new management of Mr. Burnett. A sensational piece by Mr. W. G. Wills, entitled "Forced from Home," succeeded "New Babylon" at the Duke's in February, but must be classed among the failures. Messrs. James and Thorne at the Vaudeville were at first peculiarly unfortunate, though they subsequently more than retrieved their disasters. In January a piece by Mr. Burnand entitled "Ourselves" met an early doom, as did "Cobwebs" by a Mr. Wills, which came on in March, and Mr. Albery's "Jacks and Jills" which followed the withdrawal of the last-named. The failure of Mr. Albery's play was marked by an ebullition of temper on the part of the author which is fortunately rarely evoked by ill-success. Another failure to be regretted, inasmuch as it was probably not wholly due to defects in the piece, was that of Mr. Boucicault's "O'Dowd." Mr. Boucicault, whose return after a long absence was a subject of rejoicing to a large class of playgoers, unfortunately made the fatal mistake of introducing current political topics on the stage, thus not only transgressing a wise and recognised rule, but it is to be feared seriously marring his well-deserved popularity.

Speaking generally, the season has undoubtedly been more conspicuous for the happy revival of old work than for the production of new. "The Merchant of Venice" with Mr. Irving and Miss Ellen Terry, which kept the stage during a great part of the year, made way for the "Corsican Brothers" which had a long run, owing to the fine acting of Mr. Irving in the double part and the admirable manner in which it was put on the stage. Among the creditable Shaksperian revivals may be noticed "As you like it" at the Imperial, with Miss Litton as Rosalind, Mr. Kyrle Bellew as Orlando, and Messrs. Herman Vezin, Brough, and Farren, as Jacques, Touchstone, and Adam respectively, and Othello at Sadler's Wells, where Mr. Warner, who last year made so great a hit as Coupeau in "Drink," played Othello to the Desdemona of Miss Isabel Bateman. The Haymarket, under the new management of Mr. and Mrs. Bancroft, opened early in the season with Lord Lytton's "Money." The first performances were interrupted by a popular demonstration against the abolition of the pit, which was subsequently taken up and debated with some warmth in the press. Robertson's "School" was also revived.

Prominent among revivals was that of "Forget-me-not," the most satisfactory of the productions of 1879 at the Prince of Wales's, under the new management of Mr. Edgar Bruce. The performance of the adventuress Stephanie added greatly to the reputation of Miss Genevieve Ward; but certain alterations which the actress thought fit to make in the part excited

the resentment of the author, Mr. Herman Merivale, and the dispute had to be carried into a Court of Law. The late Mr. Tom Taylor's "Vicar of Wakefield" reappeared with a strong caste at the Imperial in February, and in April Mr. Boucicault's "Shaughraun" gave its author an opportunity of making a favourable *rentrée* at the Adelphi. At the St. James's Messrs. Hare and Kendal produced a greatly modified version of Douglas Jerrold's "Black-eyed Susan" under the title of "William and Susan," from the prolific pen of Mr. Wills. It was admirably acted by Mr. and Mrs. Kendal, Mr. Hare and Mr. Barnes, and at all events succeeded in securing a duly tearful audience. Mr. Hollingshead, the versatile and enterprising manager of the Gaiety, made an attempt, with only moderate success, to revive the interest which a previous generation must be supposed to have felt in such ghastly plays as "George Barnwell" *et hoc genus*.

Our playwrights have, as usual, laid hands freely, and generally to good purpose, on foreign material. Mr. Herman Merivale's "Lord of the Manor," adapted from Schiller's "Wilhelm Meister," was not very successful at the Imperial, where it appeared in January; but "Where's the Cat?" an extravaganza from a German source by Mr. Alberty, proved as great a success at the Criterion as its predecessor, "Betsy." The great success of "The Guv'nor," a low comedy also from Germany, more than compensated Messrs. James and Thorne for the series of mishaps alluded to above. It is from the pen of Mr. Lankester, and has also been favourably received in America. Ouida's "Held in Bondage," dramatised by Mr. James Willing under the name of "Delilah," can scarcely be said to have succeeded. A somewhat fantastic play called "Iolanthe" adapted by Mr. Wills from the German legend, "King Ren's Daughter," latterly replaced the last act of the "Merchant of Venice" at the Lyceum, and was very favourably received by a certain class of playgoers, but hardly made way outside the circle of uncompromising admirers of Mr. Irving and Miss Ellen Terry. Giacometti's tragedy, "La Morte civile," rendered into English under the name of "A New Trial," afforded Mr. Coghlan at the St. James's an opportunity of displaying striking talents as Corrado, a part made famous in the original by the genius of Salvini. This piece appeared late in the year, and still keeps the stage.

Though no white stone marks, as last year, the visit of the Comédie Française, the year has been by no means barren of interesting stage events. Mdlle. Sarah Bernhardt returned alone to the Gaiety, M. Coquelin, who was expected to accompany her, being prevented from so doing by the terms of his tenure at the Français. But though "Frou Frou," "Adrienne Lecouvreur," &c., were carried through by the genius of the great actress, it was felt that the glory of former days had departed, and that the completeness and artistic perfection of 1879 had been exchanged for mere star performances. More interesting, both as a novelty and on account of generally skilful acting, care in detail, and accuracy in scenery and costume, was the advent of a company of Dutch actors which appeared at the Imperial in the summer. The success which attended this venture was the more surprising, considering the necessarily limited circle to which it appealed. Among the plays given with the greatest success were a version by Mr. Spoor, one of the troupe, of Giacometti's tragedy, "Marie Antoinette," written originally for Madame Ristori, and an original Dutch play by M. Rosier Faassen, who himself acted in it, called "Anne Mie." The latter especially won favour

by its pure and pathetic sentiment, and an English translation subsequently kept the stage well at the Prince of Wales's, the title rôle being sustained by Miss Geneviève Ward. The first appearance on the London Stage of the Hungarian actress, Mdme. Modjeska, which took place at the Court Theatre, was eagerly looked forward to on account of the high reputation she brought from abroad; and although neither "*Heartsease*," a watered version of Dumas' "*Dame aux Camélias*," nor Mr. Wingfield's version of Schiller's "*Maria Stuart*" could be pronounced a happy selection, it may be said that on the whole the actress justified her renown. As Adrienne Lecouvreur, which she is still playing, she has managed by force of that indefinite quality called charm to survive comparison even with Sarah Bernhardt.

"*The Danites*," an American play by Joaquin Miller, acted by American artists, had a good run at the New Sadler's Wells Theatre, and was afterwards transported to the Globe. America also sent us her eminent tragedian Mr. Edwin Booth, who made his appearance at the Princess's in November, the theatre having been entirely rebuilt. As Hamlet, Richelieu, and Bertuccio in the "*Fool's Revenge*," the late Mr. Tom Taylor's version of "*Le Roi s'amuse*," he exhibited much grace and thought, as well as admirable elocution and complete mastery of the technicalities of his art. A performance of Augier's "*L'Aventurière*," given in French at the Prince of Wales's in May, with Miss Geneviève Ward and a company composed almost exclusively of English artists, deserves to be chronicled, if only as a *tour de force*.

Death has unfortunately made some gaps in the ranks of our actors and dramatic authors. Mrs. Charles Kean and Miss Neilson have left us, the latter in the prime of her powers. Mr. Tom Taylor, the editor of *Punch*, the gifted playwright and the genial and accomplished critic; Planché, the Somerset Herald and well-known author of plays; Emmett, the talented American actor, are no more; Charles Harcourt's promising career was cut short by an accident at the Haymarket Theatre during rehearsal, and George Honey will no more delight the house or the club with his kindly and spontaneous humour.

III. MUSIC.

The increasing portion of the London public to whom the Opera is almost a necessary of life has had no reason to complain of the year 1880, so far, at least, as quantity is concerned. Early in the year Mr. Carl Rosa gave some excellent performances in English under the leadership of Signor Randegger. Wagner's "*Rienzi*" and "*Lohengrin*" gained, perhaps, as much by being played in a language intelligible to the audience as from the careful attention to detail shown by Mr. Rosa; though Mr. Jackson's libretto of the latter left much to be desired from a literary point of view. English Opera proper was not neglected—the "*Bohemian Girl*," "*Maritana*," and the "*Lily of Killarney*" being performed. An English version of Verdi's "*Aida*" by Mr. Hersee, and Ambroise Thomas's "*Mignon*" with spoken recitative, as originally intended by the composer, were also included in the repertory. The most interesting result of Mr. Rosa's enterprise, however, though its success from a popular point of view was only moderate, was the production of Hermann Goetz's "*Taming of the Shrew*." The German libretto, necessarily simplified from the play, is by Herr Widmann, and an excellent translation from it by the Rev. J. Troutbeck was used by Mr. Rosa. The work belongs to the

modern school, which probably explains why it failed to achieve the same degree of popularity as in Germany, though winning the warm approval of connoisseurs. Mesdames Minnie Hauk, Gaylord, Burns and Yorke, Mr. Maas, whose pure tenor voice is rapidly bringing him into the front rank, and Herr Schott, who won golden opinions as Lohengrin and Rienzi, were the leading artists in Mr. Rosa's efficient company.

In the regular season, the management at both houses gave rise to some severe criticism. Mr. Gye and Mr. Mapleson both pinned their faith to star performances—neither producing much in the way of novelty, with one striking exception. But at all events their stars knew how to shine. At Covent Garden, Mesdames Patti and Albani, the latter returning after an absence of two years, were reinforced by Madame Sembrich, a vocalist of extraordinary brilliancy. Signori Nicolini and Gayarré were still the leading tenors, and Monsieur Lassalle carried the house by storm as Nelusko in "L'Africaine." This opera, with an Italian version of Hérold's "Pré aux Clercs," were the nearest approach to novelties produced by Mr. Gye, except Mr. Cohen's "Estella," which was a decided failure. With Mesdames Nilsson, Gerster, and Trebelli, and Signor Campanini to support him, Mr. Mapleson was scarcely behind his rival as regards brilliancy of caste, while the event of the season fell to his credit in the shape of Boito's "Mefistofele." This work excited great interest, not only by its intrinsic merits, generally pronounced of a high order, but as marking a new departure in Italian Opera proper. The revolutionary conception of the lyrical drama which had found its exponents among Germans in Wagner and Goëtz, and among Frenchmen in Gounod and Bizet, had not unnaturally been slow in making its way in Italy. Verdi had shown himself to a certain extent imbued with it in Aida, but it was evidently rather an exhibition of clever versatility than a feeling of spontaneous growth. "Mefistofele" was therefore accepted as the earliest evidence before the London public, that the influence of the new school has extended to Italians. The leading parts were admirably sustained by Mmes. Nilsson and Trebelli, and Signori Campanini and Nanetti, the last a new comer, and the performance was as an *ensemble* highly praiseworthy. The *début* of Madame Eleonora Robinson allowed of a creditable revival of "Fidelio," the part of Florestan falling to M. Candidus. Mlle. Lehmann, a light soprano with considerable histrionic talent, appeared in "Traviata." Verdi's "Forza del Destino" was produced with indifferent success, and a novelty was imparted to the performance of "Lohengrin" by the conducting of Herr Richter. There was again a cheap winter season at Her Majesty's, commencing on October 18, Mr. Mapleson being replaced as manager by Mr. Armit. The chorus was renovated, and in some respects improved, but left a good deal to be desired. The *débuts* were remarkable for number rather than quality, but Mlle. Rosina Isidor, a more than average light soprano, and Mlle. Elisa Widmar made a very good impression. The brunt of the tenor work fell upon Signor Runcio, who greatly advanced his position by careful and conscientious singing, as well as by a marked improvement in acting; while Signor Aldighieri, a baritone with a reputation dating from some time back, won great favour in Rigoletto and some other parts. An opera by Signor Tito Mattei, tuneful and melodious, if not displaying any marked originality, entitled "Maria di Gand," was produced for the first time, though written some years ago. The scenery and appointments were good, the chief parts were well sustained by Madame Zacchi and

Signors Runcio and Aldighieri, and it was on the whole favourably received.

Turning to Opera bouffe, we find that the greater and, speaking generally, more successful portion came to us from France. The enormous run of Offenbach's "Madame Favart" at the Strand having come to an end, its place was taken by Olivette, the music by M. Audran, and the English libretto adapted from the French of Chivot and Duru by Mr. H. B. Farnie. It was very successful, and still keeps the stage. At the Alhambra, M. Offenbach's "Fille du Tambour Major," also adapted by Mr. Farnie, with a very pretty ballet, proved another success; and "Les Mousquetaires," by Mr. Lewis Farnie, appeared at the Globe. The national credit was, however, well sustained at the Opera Comique by Messrs. Sullivan and Gilbert's "Pirates of Penzance," a worthy successor to "The Sorcerer" and "Pinafore" as regards genuine humour, pretty music, and popular favour, which carried it on into the new year.

The year has been rich in the production of new native music in the Cantata form, which seems peculiarly well suited to the capacity of our national composers. Mr. Hubert Parry's "Prometheus Unbound," written for and produced at the Gloucester Festival in September, on the foundation of Shelley's poem, was a venture as daring as the result happily proved it to be successful. The four "scenes" into which the composer has divided the work are of course a mere epitome of the salient points of the poem. The same festival introduced to the public a cantata by Henry Holmes the violinist, entitled "Christmas Day;"—The "Corsair" by Mr. Cowen, the libretto adapted from Byron by Mr. Francillon, though written for and produced at Birmingham in 1876, was not performed in London until May 5 last, when with Mdme. Marie Roze, Mrs. Osgood, Messrs. Barton McGuckin, and F. King, it was very well received. Longfellow's "Building of the Ship," melodiously set to music by Mr. Barnett and received with favour at the Leeds Festival in October, is a work of the Conservative School untinged by the influence of Modern German music. On the same occasion, remarkable among provincial musical festivals, was produced Mr. Sullivan's "Martyr of Antioch," which for want of a better description may be classed among cantatas. In adapting to his purpose Dean Milman's poem, the composer has called to his aid his *collaborateur* in so much lighter work, Mr. Gilbert. Of this latest effort of Mr. Sullivan in the domain of serious music it is sufficient for present purposes to state that it was received with enthusiastic approval, not only by the Leeds audience, but by musical opinion generally, and was rapidly announced in the prospectuses of the Crystal Palace and Sacred Harmonic Society. In fact, it at once took its place among the finest, if not actually the finest, of the composer's productions. The performance, which was admirable, was conducted by Mr. Sullivan himself, the soloists being Mesdames Albani and Patey, Mr. E. Lloyd, and Mr. F. King. Another successful first performance was that of Mr. Henry Leslie's "First Christmas Morn," given at the Brighton Festival in February, and Madame Sainton-Dolby's melodious little work, "The Faithful Soul," appeared at Mr. Faulkner Leigh's concert in April.

Dr. Parry's "Emmanuel," produced at St. James's Hall on May 12, was the one new oratorio of the year. Exhibiting a good deal of technical skill, it is without much evidence of original genius.

As regards the Concert-Room, the year has been both interesting and eventful. New concerts have been added to the older series, while two, the

New Philharmonic and Mr. Leslie's inimitable choir, have disappeared: the season of 1880, though the last, was certainly not the least memorable of Mr. Leslie's brilliant campaigns, and he will be greatly missed. The Monday and Saturday Popular Concerts fully maintained their reputation, and introduced to the acquaintance of the public a good deal of hitherto unknown work, among which may be noticed a septett for strings in A, by Anton Dvorak, a Bohemian composer whose works have attracted the admiration of Brahms and Joachim. It met with a most favourable reception, and was afterwards repeated by desire. Mendelssohn's posthumous quartett in E flat, a new sonata for violin and piano by Brahms (Op. 78), introduced on Feb. 2, by Mdme. Normann-Neruda and Herr von Bülow, and one of Goëtz's early works, a quartett for piano and strings (Op. 6), were also among the novelties in the early part of the year. The new season commenced early in November, with Mdme. Normann-Neruda leading the quartett and Mdle. Janotha at the piano. A very interesting novelty, if it may be so called, was Mozart's octett for two oboes, two clarinets, two horns, and two bassoons, which, though a hundred years old, had never been played in London. It was admirably performed, and its quaint beauty delighted the audience.

Herr Richter again appeared, and in May and June conducted a series of nine concerts at St. James's Hall, to the delight of crowded audiences. Although not unreasonably suspected of a strong leaning towards the Modern German school, he won general praise by the liberal and Catholic spirit in which his programmes were conceived: while the taste of those whose musical hopes are fixed on the future was abundantly gratified, those who still prefer the older paths were never sent empty away. The fine performances of Beethoven's nine symphonies in the usual order were a common source of pleasure to all.

The 68th season of the Philharmonic commenced on February 5, under Mr. Cusins, when Macfarren's "Hero and Leander" overture was given. The fame of M. Saint Saëns as a composer attracted much attention to some organ recitals given by him in May.

The Crystal Palace orchestral concerts under Mr. Manns still maintained their high position. Without attempting anything like a list of the novelties produced, some should not pass without notice. An orchestral suite on the modern German model by Mr. Corder, and Mr. Hubert Parry's pianoforte concerto in F sharp, were given in April. A work by Bizet, entitled "Roma," called in the programme "suite for orchestra," but more properly a symphony, and stated by Mr. Weist Hill, who afterwards gave it at the promenade concerts, to have been so called by the composer, was given on October 23. Scarcely so profound a work as Berlioz's "Harold in Italy" to which it has been compared, it is both original and melodious. Brahms' symphony in C minor, No. 1, and Saint Saëns' violoncello concerto played by M. Hollmann, formed part of the programme on November 27, and a violin concerto in D by Gernsheim, a composer of the later German school, at the last concert.

In May, after the Crystal Palace concerts had come to an end, M. Ganz gave some good afternoon orchestral performances, at which among other new works Rubinstein's symphony in F major was produced. Mr. Cowen, in the course of four concerts in the latter part of the year, introduced *inter alia* Mozart's pianoforte concerto in D, which, though written ninety-six years ago, is said never to have been heard in London before; the ballet music added by the composer to Tannhäuser on the occasion of the *fiasco* in Paris in 1861, a violin concerto by Mr. A. H. Jackson, and lastly his

own symphony in C minor, which revealed gifts of a higher order than were generally suspected in one who had hitherto come before the public chiefly as a composer of melodious vocal music.

Perhaps the most memorable event of the year was the reproduction by Mr. Chas. Hallé at St. James's Hall, of Berlioz's dramatic legend, "*La Damnation de Faust*." This extraordinary work was given twice in May, and again in November, and was greeted with an enthusiasm which contrasted strangely with the coldness of its reception several years ago, and which may be taken to indicate more clearly than any other symptom, the change undergone by musical taste in the interval. Though intensely dramatic as regards the character of the music, Berlioz's "legend" is not arranged for stage representation; the dramatic intention was however well expressed by the soloists, Miss Mary Davies, Messrs. Lloyd, Santley and Pyatt, and the excellent chorus, which consisted in May of Mr. Hallé's Manchester choir, in November of a mixed choir of London voices trained by Mr. Frantzen, and understood to comprise many of the members of the late "Leslie's."

Two series of Promenade Concerts were given at Covent Garden after the close of the London season, the first under the direction of Mr. Cowen, the second under Mr. Weist Hill and Herr Gung'l. In both cases the orchestra was good and the programmes well chosen.

In addition to the London Handel Festival, which did not present any very novel features, there were festival performances at Leeds and Gloucester. The former, besides the Martyr of Antioch noticed above, included Beethoven's Mass in C, Schubert's "*Song of Miriam*," Bach's "*Life Everlasting*" and Raff's "*Lenore*" symphony. It was remarkable for the excellence of the chorus. At Gloucester, in addition to the two cantatas already mentioned, Mendelssohn's St. Paul, Spohr's "*Last Judgment*," and Mozart's Requiem were satisfactorily performed; and two musical antiquities, Leonardo Lió's "*Dixit Dominus*" in C, dug out of the Fitzwilliam Museum by Mr. Villiers Stanford, and a "*Stabat Mater*" by Palestrina, which Wagner has edited, excited great interest.

No new vocal stars of the first magnitude can be said to have appeared during the year, nor did the students' concert at the Academy give hope of anything much beyond the average in the immediate future. Mr. Herbert Reeves, who made his *entrée* this season, inherits, together with the prestige of his father's name, a good deal of his artistic capability, but unfortunately only a small share of his vocal gift. Among tenors, Mr. Maas, and among basses, Mr. F. King have risen greatly in popular estimation. Mesdames Patey and A. Sterling still remain foremost among *contralti*, while Miss Orridge and Miss Hope Glenn are steadily advancing towards the front rank. A violinist of great brilliancy, M. Sauret, appeared for the first time at Gans's concert in April, and afterwards at the Crystal Palace, and Herr Isidor Schnitzer, a pupil of Herr Joachim, was well received at Leslie's in May. M. Hollmann, violoncellist to the King of Holland, played Saint-Saën's concerto very well at the Crystal Palace, and M. D'Albert, a youthful pianist of great promise, made a most satisfactory *début* at the Monday Popular Concerts on November 22. Death has carried off James Coward and Sir John Goss, both well-known as talented organists and authors of much genuine music. Light opera has sustained an irreparable loss in Offenbach. He will be scarcely less missed in London than in Paris, which, though a German by birth, he had made for so many years his home.

SCIENCE OF THE YEAR 1879-80.

ASTRONOMY.

New Minor Planets.—The catalogue of planetoids has not been very largely increased by the discoveries of last year ; only 9 of these heavenly bodies have been added to the number of those previously known. The following is a list of all the minor planets discovered in the year 1880, with their discoverers, the date and place of their discovery, and their names, so far as these can be ascertained.

No.	Discoverer	Place	Date	Name
212	Palisa . .	Pola	February 6	Lilæa
213	Peters . .	Clinton, New York .	" 18	
214	Palisa . .	Pola	March 1	
215	Knorre . .	Berlin	" 27	Ænone
216	Palisa . .	Pola	April 10	
217	Coggia . .	Marseilles	August 10	Eudora
218	Palisa . .	Pola	September 4	
219	"	"	" 30	
220	Peters . .	Clinton, New York .	October 11	

Of the 219 planetoids now known to us no less than 21 have been discovered by the celebrated astronomer, Mr. Watson, of Ann Arbor Observatory, in Michigan, U.S.A., whose loss we have recently had to deplore. Previous to his death he had named his latest discoveries as bearing the Nos. 173, 174, and 179, respectively *Phædra*, *Andromache*, and *Clytemnestra*.

Nebulæ.—A new nebula was discovered by Dr. Tempel on the 19th September 1879 ; he describes it as having a central glimmer, as if from minute stars, and its brightness as nearly equal to that of those which Sir W. Herschel includes among his second-class nebulæ.

Later in the year M. Bloch, at Odessa, detected two nebulæ in the constellation Eridanus, which are not mentioned in Sir. J. Herschel's catalogue. Both are described as of considerable brightness, and one of them seems to have as large a diameter as 5'.

On the night of the 14th November 1879, the Rev. T. W. Webb detected a gaseous nebula in the constellation Cygnus, which, on comparison, seems to have been catalogued by Argelander as a star No. 4004. In a powerful spectroscope it gave the three bright lines, which, according to D'Arrest, are characteristic of a planetary, or, more correctly speaking, gaseous nebula.

On the evenings of the 13th and 14th July 1880, two more of these mysterious bodies were discovered at Harvard College Observatory ; they are described as very minute objects, only to be distinguished from stars by the character of their spectra. They were found by means of a 15-inch telescope, in which a direct vision prism had been inserted between the objective and eye-piece. Such an arrangement enables the observer to recognise immediately a planetary nebula, as it is seen in the instrument as a bright point, while a star has the appearance of a coloured line of light.

Comets of the Year.—Two comets were expected to make their appearance during the year just completed, but only one of them—that first discovered by Faye in 1843—has been reobserved. Winnecke's comet, first seen in 1858 and computed to have a period of about $5\frac{1}{2}$ years, has not, so far as is yet known, been again detected.

No less than five new, or rather unexpected, comets have been seen during the year 1880. On the 5th February Dr. Gould, who is in charge of the National Observatory of the Argentine Confederation at Cordoba, telegraphed to Professor Peters at Kiel :—"Great comet passing sun northwards." From subsequent information it appears that the tail of this comet was seen at the Cape of Good Hope on the 1st February, and on the 9th Mr. Gill, Her Majesty's Astronomer at Capetown, was able to see the nucleus as well, though it was so far down on the horizon as to be scarcely distinguishable in the sea haze. The tail, however, must have been for the short time it was visible a grand object in the southern heavens, extending as it did over nearly 100° . At the time of its first discovery it had already passed perihelion, and was leaving the sun and flying off into space with intense velocity ; by the time, therefore, that it should have shown in the northern sky it had already become so faint as to be perfectly invisible. Subsequent calculation and comparison of the elements of its motion give good reason for believing that this comet is identical with the great comet of 1843, one of the most magnificent of heavenly bodies which have appeared within present memory.

The second comet of 1880 was discovered on the 6th April by Mr. Schäberle, at the Ann Arbor Observatory, Michigan, U.S.A. The same body was seen a few days afterwards, and carefully observed on several successive nights, by MM. Henry and Bigourdan, at Paris. On or about the 1st of July it passed through perihelion, and for some weeks before and after that date it was invisible, owing to its proximity to the sun's place ; but towards the end of the year it was in a favourable position for telescopic observation.

On the 11th August a small nebulous object, which he supposes to be a comet, was detected by Mr. Lewis Swift, at Rochester, New York. Immediately after the discovery the sky clouded over, and when on the 17th it again became clear, the comet was no longer to be seen. It does not appear to have been seen elsewhere.

A fourth comet was discovered on the 29th September at Strassburg by Dr. Hartwig ; it was then about 10° north of Arcturus, and was rather bright, but the intensity of its light seemed to be rapidly diminishing. It was afterwards seen for a few seconds between clouds at the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, and it was also observed by Mr. Talmage at Mr. Barclay's observatory, Leyton, on the 5th October ; the latter observer describes it as very bright, with a long tail.

The fifth comet of 1880 was first seen by Mr. Swift at Rochester, New York, on the 1st October, and afterwards on the 7th November by Mr. Lohse, at Lord Lindsay's observatory, Dunecht. The calculated elements of this comet present great similarity to those of Comet III. 1869.

GEOGRAPHY.

East Africa.—The most important geographical expedition of the year is the one sent out by the Committee of the African Exploration Fund of the

Royal Geographical Society. Mr. Keith Johnstone, the able leader of this expedition, unfortunately fell a victim to the unhealthiness of the climate at *Berobero* or *Behobeho*, situated in the country between the Ruaha and Uranga rivers, some distance above the point where they unite to form the Lufigi. Unchecked by the melancholy event, the exploring party pushed on, under the direction of Mr. Joseph Thomson, the second in command, and on September 22, 1879, arrived at Mbungu, on the northern shore of Lake Nyassa. After a few days' rest, Mr. Thomson again left the lake to accomplish the second portion of his undertaking. After a journey of 250 miles, over a tolerably level country, and among natives who were comparatively friendly, he reached Pambete, at the southern end of Lake Tanganyika, on November 8. By a nearly parallel route, Mr. James Stewart, of the Livingstonia Mission, had almost simultaneously with Mr. Thomson's party (he arrived at Pambete only a day later) also traversed the country lying between the lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika; the knowledge thus acquired by the two explorers cannot fail of being of the utmost service to the cause of geographical science in this part of Africa.

From Pambete Mr. Thomson travelled, over very rough ground, through the high hills on the south-western shore of Tanganyika, and on Christmas morning arrived at Kasenge, where he sighted the Lukuga creek, which he found to be a rapid river, flowing westward in a full stream to join the Congo. In the year preceding Thomson's visit, Mr. E. C. Hore, of the London Missionary Society's station at Kawele, near Ujiji, had also seen the Lukuga flowing out of the lake in a large and rapid stream. From the testimony of these two explorers we may now conclude that the question of the drainage of Lake Tanganyika has been finally settled.

On January 19, 1880, Mr. Thomson left Kasenge and followed the course of the Lukuga for several days, intending to strike south and to reach Iendwe, where he left his camp and the principal part of his followers, by a circuit across the Urua and Uemba. In this attempt he was foiled by the hostility of the natives, so that he was compelled to return to the lake by the way he came, arriving at Iendwe on April 7. His projected route from Iendwe to Kilwa on the coast he found closed by a war between the native tribes, but he was able to settle the problem of the hitherto unvisited Hikwa, a salt lake lying on the high hills to the eastward of Tanganyika and from thence he fell into the regular route to Bagamoyo by way of Unyanyembe, and finally reached Zanzibar, with all his men, on July 16.

The explorers constituting the first expedition of the Belgian International Society, under Captain Cambier, arrived at Tanganyika on August 16, 1879, and have made arrangements for the establishment of a station at Karema, on the eastern side of the lake, about 150 miles south of Ujiji. It is intended that this portion of the expedition shall push on to Nyangwe, on the Lualaba, there to join Mr. Stanley, who is advancing from the west, and to establish a great central exploring station in the heart of the continent. Meanwhile, M. Cambier has been reinforced by the arrival at Karema of the second expedition, under the leadership of Captain Popelin and Dr. Van den Hoevel. At Mpwapwa this party was joined by Messrs. Carter and Cadenhead, from Dar-es-Salaam, with the four tame elephants which had been brought from India for the service of the Belgian expedition. Two of the elephants reached the lake Tanganyika in safety, the other two having succumbed to the fatigues of the long march; it has been shown, however, that the Indian elephant

can be used with advantage as a baggage animal in Africa, more especially as it seems to be proof against the bite of the dreaded tsetse fly, which is so fatal to cattle and horses in the interior of the continent. Very recently intelligence has been received of the treacherous assassination of Messrs. Carter and Cadenhead, by the chief Mirambo, with whom Mr. Stanley made acquaintance on his journey from Zanzibar to Lake Tanganyika. To reinforce the Belgian expedition now established at Karema, Messrs. Burdo and Roger, with a third expedition of the Belgian Society, left Zanzibar early in the present year.

Western Africa.—Not much has been heard of Mr. H. M. Stanley's expedition in connection with the Belgian International Society to explore the Congo country above the falls of that river, and to establish stations on its banks. In August it was announced that another party of Belgian explorers, consisting of MM. Braconnier, Valcke, Nève, and Van Heste, would leave for West Africa to reinforce him.

Messrs. Capello and Ivens, the members of the Portuguese expedition, who accompanied Major Serpa Pinto on the first part of his journey, from the West Coast to the Transvaal, returned to Loanda in November 1879. They separated from Major Pinto at Bine, and turned northwards to explore the region of the Quango; this river they wished to descend to its junction with the Congo, but were prevented by the hostility of the natives.

In the autumn of 1879 an expedition by Messrs. Zweifel and Moustier, *employés* in the commercial house of Verminck at Sierra Leone, succeeded in discovering the sources of the Niger or Joliba. They found three separate streams, which, soon after issuing from their founts, flow into a small lake from which they emerge as one river, the Joliba. There are also two English missionary parties working towards the Upper Congo, one under Mr. McCall of the Livingstone Mission, the other under Mr. Comber, of the Baptist Missionary Society.

Dr. Oscar Lenz, the traveller sent to Morocco by the German African Society to explore the Atlas range, was prevented by the opposition of the Berber chiefs from carrying out his original intention. He has, however, in the company of Hadj Ali, a nephew of the celebrated Abd-el-Kader, and under the disguise of a Turkish doctor of Constantinople, succeeded in escaping from the dominions of the Emperor of Morocco, crossing the Atlas by a pass never previously attempted by a European. By a letter dated the April 13, 1880, he had arrived at Fum-el-Hossan, the residence of Sheik Ali, of the Kabyle tribe of Marbida. At the meeting of the Berlin Geographical Society on November 4 it was announced that Dr. Lenz had arrived safely at Timbuctoo early in June. Two of his followers were lost in the desert, and two had gone back. Subsequently we hear of him at Medina in Senegal on the 2nd November and at St. Louis on the 22nd of the same month, and it is expected that he will shortly be in Berlin to give an account of his interesting and successful exploration.

Central Asia.—Colonel Prejevalsky has failed in his attempt to reach Lhasa, the capital of Thibet, from the north-west. After many months spent in the remote and little-known regions to the north of the elevated and deserted plateau which overhangs the city, he has been turned back by the refusal of the Lamas to allow him to visit the sacred city. At one time, indeed, rumours were in circulation that the intrepid traveller and his companions had lost their lives in the desolate mountainous regions south of

Suchow. Fortunately, these rumours proved to be false; by the latest account contained in letters from Colonel Prejevalsky received by the Russian Geographical Society last June, it appears that he had penetrated from Suchow to Nabchu, a village only 180 versts from Lhasa, and was then encountered by a body of Thibetans, who refused to allow him to pass without permission from the Government. Retracing his steps, he arrived at Si-ning on the 19th March last, from which he intended to explore the upper course of the Yellow River, and to return home by way of Alashan to Urga. He is expected in St. Petersburg early in February.

Another bold attempt to reach the Thibetan capital was made last year by Count Széchényi, an Hungarian traveller, who endeavoured to accomplish the enterprise by way of Western China. After trying to visit the mysterious lake, Lob-nor, which he was prevented from doing by the refusal of the Chinese Governor of the province of Kansu to grant him a pass, he reached Si-ning, and remained there for six months exploring the neighbourhood of Koko-nor and the upper waters of the Yellow river. In August 1879, he left Si-ning, and continued his journey towards Thibet by the Chinese province of Szechuen; here he was met by persistent attempts of the Chinese authorities to dissuade him from his enterprise, and finally, by threats of armed resistance, he was compelled to give way to the opposition raised by the jealousy of the priestly governing class. He abandoned his attempt, and returned to Europe by way of Yunnan and Burmah.

South America.—In this part of the world contributions to geographical science have been made during the year by the veteran Alpine climber, Mr. Edward Whymper. With two Swiss guides—the brothers Carrel, whom he took with him to South America—Mr. Whymper has ascended some of the high peaks of the Andes. Besides Chimborazo he has succeeded in reaching the summits of Corazon, Sinchalegua, Antisana, and Pichincha, and on one occasion he was compelled to pass twenty-six consecutive hours on the top of the volcano Cotopaxi, at a height of 19,500 feet. Chimborazo he ascended twice, and, as the mean of two observations, fixed its height at 20,517 feet.

Arctic Exploration.—Very little appears to have been accomplished in the northern seas. The “Jeanette” (with the Gordon-Bennett expedition) whose voyage as far as Onalaska was recorded last year, has not since been heard of, and the relief steamer “Corwin,” sent to find and succour her if necessary, has returned without tidings of the missing vessel. Late in the autumn a letter from the captain of the “Jeanette” was received by the United States Navy Department through the Russian Government. This letter was dated Aug. 29, 1879, and reported the arrival of the steamer at Cape Serdze Kamen on that date. Thence she was to sail for Wrangell Land, but nothing has since been heard of her or any of her crew.

In the summer of 1878 an expedition fitted out in the United States by private enterprise was sent to search for further relics of the Franklin expedition and of the crews of the “Erebus” and “Terror,” which rumours among the Eskimos of Hudson’s Bay asserted to be still in existence. Lieutenant Schwatka, the leader of this expedition, and his companions returned at the end of last September to Massachusetts, having accomplished a sledge journey of over 2,819 geographical miles in length—the longest sledge journey on record—and after enduring the greatest amount of cold ever experienced by white men. During sixteen days of the sledge journey, extending over

a period of eleven months, the average temperature was 100° below freezing point. In the main object of this expedition they were completely successful; on the shores of King William's Land and on the adjoining mainland they found the graves of many of that devoted band of explorers, and they buried the bones of all remaining above ground and erected monuments to their memory. They have brought home also several tokens and relics, though they have not been able to add much to our knowledge of the end of the ill-fated expedition.

Mr. Leigh Smith in his yacht "Eira" has been cruising during the summer of 1880 in the seas to the east of Spitzbergen. He has visited Franz Josef Land, and has considerably extended our knowledge of the coast line and of the islands in that region.

Unexplored China.—Mr. G. F. Easton, an agent of the China Inland Mission, pushed his exploration to the remote province of Kan-Suh, on the north-west border of China, a region most of which has hitherto been unexplored. Mr. Easton's head-quarters were at the city of Tsin-Chan, and from that place he wrote in April and July 1880, giving some account of what he had seen during his travels. Away, near the western border of the province, is the new city of Tao-Chan, on the approach to which things begin to put on an aspect different from that presented in China proper. The houses have flat roofs, and many of them an upper storey. The women are very coarse, though healthy; stalwart, with red faces and large feet, wearing a coarse garment coming a little way below the knees. Their hair is parted in the centre a little way and then divided into two partings over the sides of the head like the letter Y, the hair hanging loosely over the ears like that of many European women, that of the young girls often hanging over the eyes as well. The women seem to do most of the work. Of all the desolate and ruined cities that Mr. Easton had seen in China, none equal Tao-Chan new city. Inside the walls, containing an immense enclosure, there is nothing but a massive heap of ruins on every hand; not a street in the city. The city was built within the last twenty years, and is said to have had a large population of "Fan-tsä," but it was destroyed by the Mahomedans some sixteen or seventeen years ago. These "Fan-tsä," as the border tribes here are called, give the Chinese authorities much trouble; they are allowed to appoint one of their own number to act as their immediate governor, and in the city of Tao-Chan the sub-prefect is called the prefect of the "Fan-tsä." About sixty li distant is the city of Tao-Chan, a small desolate place. Later on Mr. Easton came into close contact with these Fans and found them exceedingly hospitable; they reminded Mr. Easton of the Welsh, and cannot enjoy their food without milk. Mr. Easton's last journey was to Si-ning-Fur and other cities. This lies beyond Shun-hwa-Ting, on the banks of the Yellow river. After remaining ten days at Si-ning-Fur, Mr. Easton returned by way of Mén-peh, Lan-Chan, Tih-tao-Chan, and Kong-Chang-Fur. Some of these cities and others referred to by Mr. Easton do not occur on any European map—English, French, Russian, or German; but they are placed in the Chinese maps, published in book-form in Wu-Chang. In the neighbourhood of the Yellow river Mr. Easton found himself among the Sah-la. In appearance and habits they differ little from the Chinese, but they have a distinct language of their own, which bears no affinity to the Chinese. They are entirely Mahomedan. He also met with a few Tu-ren; called the Tu-li tribe by Europeans; they too are entirely Mahomedan; their language is a

distinct one, but there is often a strong resemblance between it and Sahla, or between it and Chinese. At Si-ning, Mr. Easton met Count Széchenyi, the Hungarian nobleman who was determined to force his way into Tibet on the track of Colonel Prejewalsky, but who was compelled to turn aside and proceed to Burmah, and who is now at Calcutta. With the Count were two men of science as his assistants. Mr. Easton states that Cameron, the African traveller, was also expected on an exploring journey. The altitude of Si-ning-Fur is 8,600ft., and of Ts-ing-hai (Koko Nor), 10,500ft. The correct position of Si-ning on the map is latitude $36^{\circ} 33' 32''$ N., longitude $102^{\circ} 24' 35''$ E. Five Germans arrived in Lan-Chan to commence woollen and cloth works, but the enterprise seems to have been a failure, one of them having committed suicide. The wool is bad, and it is difficult to get machinery up. There is a Roman Catholic bishop at Lan-Chan, who has been there for fourteen years. There are other priests about the district, who form a society by themselves.

The Island of Dominica.—Dominica has always been veiled in a more or less deep halo of mystery. It belongs to the "Windward Group," and was discovered by Columbus in 1493. Since 1814 it has been one of the British possessions. A total population of about 26,000 is ascribed to the island, of which Roseau, the main port, claims 3,000. Prominent among the "mysteries" of Dominica have always been the "Boiling Lake" and the "Soufreurs." In the *American Naturalist* for November 1880, Mr. Endlich gives a graphic account of the extraordinary volcanic eruption which took place at the former of these on the 4th January in this year. The inhabitants of Roseau on that day found shortly before noon—it was a clear day—a huge dark cloud overhanging them. It soon began to "rain down" fine particles of mineral dust. To Dr. Nichols of Roseau, this cloud seemed to extend to a distance of about eight miles beyond the town and was then lost seaward. The lake district was visited after the eruption, which was accompanied by a low rumbling noise, but by no loud detonations or seismic disturbances. A path was made along the narrowest crest of the ridge at an elevation of 3,200 feet. From this the view was overpowering. Before the party lay miles of mountain slopes, utterly denuded of vegetation. Stumps of gigantic trees, broken masses of rock, spoke of the terrific force which had laid in a desolate waste what but two months before had been a dense primeval forest. To the right, steam was fitfully issuing from a crater; to the left rose a majestic column of white steam from the "Boiling Lake." This had been formerly some 300 yards wide, but the disturbance had left it only a boiling spring some 15 ft. across. The water issued with tremendous ebullition. The eruption did not take place at the lake, but in its vicinity; and every indication speaks for the assumption that the phenomenon on this occasion is to be regarded as an explosion and not as a true eruption. The area exploded was fully nine square miles. In a few years it will be all healed over, and but little will remain to tell the tale of the destruction in 1880, nor in all probability will such explosions ever disturb any very extended area of the island.

The Population of the Earth.—A new edition of Behm and Wagner's publication, "Die Bevölkerung der Erde" gives the following statistics:—

Spain, 1877; Portugal, 1878; Greece, 1879; Bosnia and Herzegovina, 1879; New Zealand, 1878; New Caledonia, Marquesas Islands, and Tahiti, 1876; Tuamotu Archipelago and the Sandwich Islands, 1878; French Sene-

gambia, 1878 ; Canary Islands, 1877 ; San Salvador, 1878 ; some of the West India Islands and French Guiana, 1877 ; and Peru, 1876.

According, then, to the latest data, Europe has a population of 315,929,000 ; Asia, 834,707,000 ; Africa, 205,679,000 ; America, 95,495,500 ; Australia and Polynesia, 4,031,000 ; Polar Regions, 82,000 : giving a total of 1,455,923,500, showing an increase, in about a year and a half, of 16,778,200.

The following are the populations of the various countries of Europe, with the dates to which the figures refer :—Germany, 1875, 42,727,360, estimate, end of 1877, 43,943,834 ; Austria, estimate end of 1879, 22,176,745 ; Hungary, 1876, 15,506,715 ; Austria-Hungary, 1876, 37,342,000, estimate for end of 1879, 38,000,000 ; Switzerland, 1878 estimate, 2,792,264 ; Belgium, 1878 estimate, 5,476,668 ; Netherlands, 1878 estimate, 3,981,887 ; Denmark, 1878, 2,070,400 ; Sweden, 1878 estimate, 4,531,863 ; Norway, census 1876, 1,818,853 ; Great Britain and Ireland, estimate 1879, 33,517,000 ; France, census 1876, 36,905,788 ; Spain, census 1877, 16,625,860, including the Canaries (280,388), the Balearic Islands (289,035), and Ceuta and other places in North Africa (12,179) ; Portugal, census 1878, 4,745,124, including the Azores (264,352) and Madeira (132,221) ; Italy, estimate 1878, 28,209,620. A census of Greece was taken in 1879, which gave a total area of 51,860 square kilometres and a population of 1,679,775. This population, for reasons stated in the official publication, was considered too small, and 1,702,356 is given as the correct figure. With regard to Roumania, after taking account of the retrocession of Bessarabia to Russia and the cession by the latter of the Dobrudja, the editors found that the present area of Roumania is 129,947 square kilometres and the population 5,376,000. The latter figure is based on rather old *data*, but there is nothing more trustworthy until the Roumanian Government has completed the results of the census. The area of Servia, after its recent addition of 11,097 kilometres, is given as 48,657 square kilometres, and the population in 1880, 1,353,890. Though the latter figure is furnished by the able Servian statistician, M. Jakschitsch, it seems to be less than it ought really to be by 235,000. The treaty area of Montenegro is given as 9,433 square kilometres, and the population, 280,000. With European Turkey the difficulties of the editors culminate, their main resource being to strike a balance of probabilities ; the details are much too complicated to give here, and we must content ourselves with the results. The following table, then, gives the results of the calculation of Herren Behm and Wagner as to the area and population of the immediate possessions and the dependencies of European Turkey :

	Area Square Kilos.	Population
Immediate possessions	179,475	4,790,000
Eastern Roumelia	35,387	923,179
Bulgaria	63,865	1,965,474
Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Novi Bazar	60,484	1,187,879
	339,211	8,366,500

Then, taking the Turkish possessions in Asia, we have :—

Immediate possessions	1,889,055	16,133,000
Cyprus	9,601	150,000
Tributary Princedom of Samos . .	550	37,000
	1,899,206	16,320,000

The entire possessions, then, of Turkey in Europe and Asia have an area of 2,238,417 square kilomètres, and a population of 25,180,000.

Turning now to Russia, we find the statistics very mixed, some being comparatively recent and trustworthy, others no one knows how old, and by no means reliable.

	Area Square Versts.	Population
European Russia (1870) . . .	4,313,800·6	65,864,910
Poland (1872) . . .	111,875·4	6,528,017
Addition to Bessarabia (1878) . . .	8,149·2	127,000 (?)
Finland (1877) . . .	328,233·2	1,968,626
Caucasus (1873-6) . . .	385,887	5,391,744
Increase in Armenia (1878) . . .	22,643·7	236,600 (?)
Siberia (1870) . . .	10,979,687·3	3,440,362
Central Asia . . .	2,920,524·2	4,401,876
Caspian Sea . . .	386,125·2	—
Russian dominions . . .	19,456,925·8	87,959,000

Until we know the final results of the Kuldja Treaty with China, there is, of course, some uncertainty about the Central Asian figures. As to the area of the still independent region between Khiya, Bokhara, Afghanistan, Persia, and the Russian Transcaspian district, the editors give 206,500 square kilomètres, and the population, after Vambéry, 450,000. The only stock that have up to the present moment retained their entire independence are the Tekkes, of whom 200,000 are Akhal-Tekkes, frequenting the oases at the foot of the Kuren-Dagh; the remainder 100,000 have their seat to the east, at present in Merv. Of Khiva, the area is given as 57,800 square kilomètres, and the population 700,000. In a foot-note the editors give, on the authority of Vambéry, they state by mistake, correctly on the authority of Mr. A. H. Keane, in *Nature*, the total number of people of the Turcoman stock in Central Asia, as 1,100,000.

Proceeding now to the other countries of Asia, we find Bokhara, with the adjacent district of Karategin, Schignan, Roschan, &c., has an area of 239,000 square kilomètres and a population of 2,130,000. The total area of Arabia is given as 3,156,600 square kilomètres, and the population 5,000,000; of this, 2,507,390 square kilomètres, with a population of 3,700,000, are still independent of Turkey. There are quite recent estimates for one or two districts of Persia; but the editors still give the area as 1,647,070 square kilomètres and the population 7,000,000; the district of Kotur, ceded to Persia by the Berlin Treaty, has an area of 1,125 square kilomètres, and a population of 8,000. In Afghanistan, the area is set down as 721,664 square kilomètres and the population as 4,000,000. At the same time they give the detailed lists of the various tribes and stocks published in *Nature* by Mr. Keane, as the result of careful and independent research, and yielding as the estimate of population the much higher figure of 6,145,000. Kafiristan has an area of 51,687 square kilomètres and a population of 1,000,000, and Beloochistan 276,515 square kilomètres and 350,000 inhabitants. China, with all its dependencies, has an area of 11,813,750 square kilomètres, and a population of 434,626,500. The latter figure is, however, very uncertain; some authorities maintain it is much too high, and others much too low; the former are more likely to be right. Hongkong in 1876 had an area of 83 square kilomètres, and a population of 139,144; Macao (1879) 11·75 square kilomètres and 77,230 inhabitants. Japan, according to official statistics of 1878,

had an area of 379,711, and a population of 34,338,504. The total area of British possessions in India, including Burmah, is given as 899,341 square miles, and of Tributary States, 557,903 square miles ; population of former, 191,095,445 ; of latter, 49,203,053 ; total British possessions, 1,457,244 square miles, population 240,298,500. The French possessions in India have an area of 508½ square kilomètres, and a population (1877) of 280,381 ; the Portuguese an area of 3,855 square kilomètres and a population of 444,987. Ceylon has an area of 24,702 square miles, and a population in 1877 of 2,755,557. The following table shows the areas and populations of the various subdivisions of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula, according to the latest attainable data of any value :—

	Area Square kilos.	Population
British Burmah	229,351	2,747,148
Manipur	19,675	126,000
Tribes east and south of Assam	65,500	200,000
Independent Burmah	457,000	4,000,000
Siam	726,850	5,750,000
Anam	440,500	21,000,000
French Cochín-China	59,457	1,600,000
Cambodia	83,861	890,000
Independent Malacca	81,500	800,000
Straits Settlements	3,472	350,000
	2,167,440	36,963,000

The East India islands are subdivided thus :—

	Area Square kilos.	Population
Andamans	6,497	14,500
Nicobars	1,772	5,500
Samoa Islands, &c.	1,698,757	27,343,000
Philippines	295,585	7,450,000
	34,813,000	

Turning to Australia and Polynesia, the editors notice the recent annexation to Queensland of several islands in Torres Straits, and give the population of the colonies as follows for 1878 :—New South Wales, 693,743 ; Victoria, 879,442 ; South Australia, 248,795 ; Northern Territory (1879), 3,265 ; Queensland, 210,510 ; West Australia, 28,166 ; Tasmania, 109,947 ; New Zealand (end of 1878), 476,642, including Maoris, which is considerably larger than the census figure of March of the same year, 414,412. From careful estimates the area of New Guinea is set down as 785,362 square kilomètres, or, with the neighbouring islands, 807,956 square kilomètres, and the population 500,000. The following table relates to the Oceanic islands :—

	Area Square kilos.	Population
Melanesia	145,855	606,800
Polynesia	9,791	180,400
Sandwich Islands	17,008	58,000
Micronesia	3,530	84,650
	176,184	879,850

As the result of a new estimate of the area of Africa, the editors give 29,283,390 square kilomètres. This area is, according to Dr. Nachtigal, so far as productiveness is concerned, divided as follows :—Forest and cultivable land, 6,376,725 square kilomètres ; savannas and light woods, 6,235,378 ;

bush, 1,572,431 ; steppe, 4,269,027 ; desert, 10,659,133, of which the Sahara occupies upwards of 9,000,000 kilomètres, including many oases and cultivated patches. The area and population of Africa are divided among the chief countries and regions as follows :—

	Area Square kilos.	Population
Morocco (including Swat, &c.)	812,332	7,829,000
Algeria	667,065	2,867,626
Tunis	116,348	2,100,000
Tripoli, &c.	1,033,349	1,010,000
Sahara	6,180,426	2,850,000
Egypt and dependencies	2,986,915	17,420,000
Central Soudan	1,714,983	31,770,000
West Soudan and Upper Guinea	1,993,046	43,600,000
Abyssinia	333,279	3,000,000
Harar, Galli, &c.	1,897,038	15,500,000
North Equatorial Regions	2,254,980	27,000,000
South Equatorial Regions	1,717,900	20,000,000
Independent South Africa	1,500,000	13,286,350
Portuguese East Africa	991,150	1,000,000
Portuguese West Africa	78,480*	9,000,000
Orange Free State	111,497	75,000
British South Africa	968,418	1,966,000
African Islands	626,054	3,892,400

Coming to America, we have British North America, with a total area (including Polar lands) of 3,248,078 square miles, and a population of 3,839,470 ; Bermudas, 19½ square miles, and in 1838, 13,812 inhabitants ; French possessions in North America, 90 square miles, population (1877) 5,338. For the United States the new census returns of the year were not available ; but from a careful calculation the editors think that for 1880 a population of 48,500,000 is not too much to expect, exclusive of 300,000 Indians ; the area of the States is given as 3,603,884 square miles. The area of Mexico is given as 1,921,240 square kilomètres, and the present population as 9,485,600. Central American States, 547,308 square kilomètres, and 2,759,200 population ; West Indies, 244,478 square kilomètres, 4,412,700 population ; Guiana, 461,977 square kilomètres, 345,800 population ; Venezuela, 1,137,615 square kilomètres, 1,784,197 population ; United States of Columbia, 837,000 square kilomètres, 3,000,000 population ; Ecuador, 643,295 square kilomètres, with population (1878) 1,146,000 ; Peru, 1,119,941 square kilomètres, with population (1876), 3,050,000—this is inclusive of the recent addition of the Bolivian littoral ; Chili, 321,462 square kilomètres, population (1878), 2,400,000 ; Argentine Republic, including Patagonia, 3,051,706, population (1879) probably 2,400,000 ; Uruguay, 186,920 square kilomètres, population (1877), 440,000 ; Paraguay, 238,920 square kilomètres with population (1876), 293,844 ; Brazil, 8,337,218 square kilomètres, population 11,108,291 ; Falkland Islands, area according to official statement, 6,500 square miles, but more probably, according to Behm and Wagner, 4,840 square miles, population (1878), 1,394. As the editors greatly distrust the official estimates of area in the South American States, they give the result of a new planimetric measurement by Dr. Wisotzki, of Königsberg ; this gives the total area, including islands, as 17,752,303 square kilomètres, nearly 8,000,000 kilomètres less than the official statistics make it.

* Angola.

Finally, we have the statistics of the Polar regions. The total area of the regions on or around the Arctic circle is given as 3,859,400, the only regularly-inhabited lands being Iceland and Greenland, the former with 72,000, and the latter 10,000 inhabitants. The South Polar regions are credited with an area of 660,000 square kilomètres, in which, so far as known, there are no inhabitants.

CHEMISTRY.

Dissociation of the Elements.—The views of Mr. Norman Lockyer, as to the compound nature of the so-called elementary substances—views which rest on his own spectroscopic observations,—have given rise to much difference of opinion among scientific men; among others, Professors Liveing and Dewar, of Cambridge, are inclined to question the validity of the arguments which he employs. Professor Meyer of Zürich has discovered that chlorine at a temperature of 1,200° undergoes a remarkable change of density, and argues that this observation tends to show that chlorine is not the simple substance it has hitherto been supposed to be. Subsequently Professor Crafts, a well-known American chemist, on repeating Meyer's experiments in a slightly modified form, was unable to arrive at the same conclusion, but working with iodine he succeeded in showing that that substance was capable of dissociation at a somewhat lower temperature than that given by Meyer for chlorine. Since the announcement of Craft's observations, Meyer has himself acknowledged the substantial accuracy of the results obtained by his American colleague, so that the question remains at present in an undecided state.

It will be recollected that three years ago Dr. Henry Draper, of New York, announced the discovery of the existence of oxygen and nitrogen in the solar atmosphere. This discovery has, however, not been confirmed, and is indeed denied by those who assert that the surface of the sun is too hot for metalloids to exist there. Solar spectroscopy has proved that above forty of the known metals can be detected in the heated matter surrounding the sun, but except Draper no one has seen traces of a non-metallic element. Hydrogen, it is true, is found there in abundance; but this fact is held to be a convincing proof that that element is really a metal and not a metalloid. Like chlorine and iodine, which can be dissociated at artificial temperatures, it is urged that all the other non-metallic elements must become dissociated in the intense heat of the solar surface.

Synthesis of Organic Substances.—Another brilliant discovery has been accomplished in this domain of organic chemistry. Messrs. Grimaux and Adam have succeeded in producing citric acid, the characteristic acid of lemons, from glycerine. Simultaneously with the publication of this discovery, it was announced that Kekulé had been working at the same subject, but by a totally different method.

Artificial Diamonds.—Chemists have long been acquainted with the chemical constitution of the diamond; it was known to be carbon in its purest natural form, and it has always been considered possible, if not probable, that a method might be discovered of producing it artificially.

This interesting and difficult problem seems to have been successfully solved by Mr. J. B. Hannay, a young chemist, at Glasgow. Experimenting with liquids containing solids in solution, he found that when the liquid was converted into a gas by raising its temperature, the solid in many cases also remained in a state of solution or diffusion in the gaseous menstruum,

and that when the solid is freed from its gaseous solvent, it is invariably deposited in a crystalline form. From this, he was led to try whether carbon treated in this way could not be obtained as a crystal, but was met with the difficulty of finding a solvent for that substance. Hence he was led to attack the problem in a less direct way; he discovered that when a volatile hydrocarbon—that is, a gas containing carbon and hydrogen—is submitted to heat under great pressure in the presence of the alkaline metals, the hydrocarbon is broken up, and the hydrogen combines with the metal, while the carbon is set free. The experiments which he conducted in the course of this research must have been of enormous difficulty. To obtain the requisite pressure he imprisoned the substances in wrought-iron tubes of immense thickness and strength, but under the intense strain to which they were subjected, these tubes in numerous instances tore open like paper, with considerable danger to the life and limbs of the operators. Finally, however, Mr. Hannay succeeded, in the presence of a stable compound of nitrogen, in obtaining crystals of carbon, which, to all intents and purposes, are real diamonds. They have been examined by Professor Story-Maskelyne, and have been pronounced by him to possess all the characteristics of the real gem; they are as hard as the diamond, they have the same optical properties, and the same crystalline form, and they behave in the same way before the blowpipe.

GEOLOGY AND PALEONTOLOGY.

A Reptilian Bird.—Nearly twenty years ago, Von Meyer, from the evidence of a fossil feather found in the Solenhofen lithographic stone, established the genus *Archæopteryx*. Somewhat later, a slab of limestone, containing various parts of a feather-bearing animal, was found in the same deposit; it is now deposited in the British Museum, and the remains were described by Professor Owen as those of a bird, which he referred to Von Meyer's genus of *Archæopteryx* under the name of *Archæopteryx macrura*, in allusion to the length of the tail. A second, and much more perfect specimen of the same creature was afterwards discovered in the lithographic stone of Pappenheim, and was placed in the Senckenbergian Museum at Frankfort, where for some years no one was allowed to see it. Recently, however, it had been examined by Professor Carl Vogt, who gave a most interesting account of his investigation, at the meeting of the Swiss Society of Natural Sciences, held in 1879 at St. Gallen. From this account, it appears that the head, neck, and all the fore part of the body, including the anterior limbs, are clearly constructed as in reptiles, while the posterior limbs are those of a bird. A large part, particularly the hinder part of the body, was covered with feathers, the legs resembling those of a falcon, and there was probably a ring of feathers round the neck, as in the condor; there were also feathers attached to the wings or arms, though these are like the arms of a three-fingered lizard. Professor Vogt regards the *Archæopteryx* as neither a reptile nor a bird, but as an intermediate type of the most strongly marked description.

The Great Sea Gull of the Sheppey Clay.—About two years ago, the fossil humerus of a large bird was found in the clay of the Isle of Sheppey. Professor Owen, to whom the bone was submitted, regarded it as part of the wing of an aquatic bird, for which he proposed the name of *Argillornis longipennis*. Recently, a bird's skull has been found in the same deposit, and at

a meeting of the Geological Society, in November 1879, it was pronounced by the same eminent authority to have belonged to an animal of the same species. The characteristics of the skull confirm the opinion Professor Owen had previously formed; it seems to have belonged to a large sea bird, approximating most nearly to the albatross among existing birds.

An Ancient Glacier Bed.—A very interesting discovery has been made near Solothurn, in Switzerland. In the course of some quarrying operations, a mass of drift sand and boulders, to the depth of some 18 feet, had to be removed, underneath which was found the hard limestone rock highly polished by the action of ice, and channelled by running water. The channels communicate with three gigantic "pot holes," as they are termed; in one of these, the huge boulder or millstone by which it was hollowed out still remained. This bed of limestone must during the last glacial epoch have formed part of the bed of a glacier; the ice water ran down the channels, and set in motion the great pebbles, until their wearing action had ground out the deep holes sometimes called "Giant's Rattles."

A Fossil Forest.—At Oldham in Lancashire, the argillaceous shale on the eastern escarpment of Oldham Edge (a hill 800 feet high) has been dug into for clay for brick-making; this has laid bare a very fine sample of a carboniferous forest. The trees were found in an erect position in considerable numbers varying in height from 3 to 10 feet, and in diameter from 1 foot to 30 inches. Some of them show the characteristic markings of *Sigillaria*, with stigmarian roots and rootlets still attached. Between them lay a mass of calamites, lepidodendroid twigs and leaves, fronds of ferns, and other vegetable waifs.

PHYSICS.

The Electric Light.—The difficulties in the way of rendering the light from the electric arc available for domestic purposes, have induced inventors to experiment with the light obtained by rendering some substance incandescent by means of the electric current.

Towards the end of 1879 the American correspondents of the London daily papers telegraphed in rather sanguine language accounts of a new electric lamp invented by Mr. Edison. The extraordinary simplicity and marvellous cheapness (it was to cost only 25 cents) of this wonderful lamp, and the brilliancy and steadiness of the light it gave out, were represented in glowing colours. Mr. Edison, it was stated, had determined to put up 800 of these lamps at Menlo Park, where his workshops are situated, and had made arrangements to put the light into practical operation in New York city. At the end of January, however, the reports were not quite so satisfactory. Mr. Edison had found it impossible to construct a glass globe which would maintain a perfect vacuum. Recently it has again been reported that he has succeeded in overcoming his difficulties, and it is promised once more that his lamps will soon be in general use. When the principle of Edison's lamp was first announced, Mr. J. W. Swan, of Newcastle-on-Tyne, claimed to have adopted the use of charred paper or cardboard of a horse-shoe shape fifteen years before, but, as he stated, had not succeeded in rendering the lamp durable. He has now invented a globe which is said to maintain the vacuum; and according to his own statement, has kept his lamp alight for more than six weeks continuously.

The Photophone.—The transmission of sound by the agency of an electrical current has become now firmly established in the region of accom-

plished possibilities ; this is abundantly proved by the success of the telephone in its various forms as an instrument of practical use, which for many purposes threatens to supersede the electric telegraph. Naturally almost, the attention of inventors would be directed to the construction of an instrument by which light might be transmitted by electricity in the same way as the telephone transmits sound. In the spring rumours reached England that such an instrument, under the name of the *diaphote* or *telephote*, had actually been invented in America, and it was authoritatively stated that Professor Graham Bell had deposited in the Smithsonian Institution a sealed package, containing the first results obtained with this remarkable invention.

When, however, Professor Bell actually made known the instrument which he had invented, it proved to be one for the transmission of sound by the agency of light. The photophone, as his instrument is called, solves this problem in a way which is almost startling in its simplicity. "In fact, it bears the same relation to the telephone that the heliograph does to the telegraph. You speak to a transmitting instrument, which flashes the vibrations along a beam of light to a distant station, where a receiving instrument reconverts the light into audible speech."

A plane mirror, formed of thin silvered glass or mica, on which a powerful beam of light is concentrated by a lens, forms the transmitter. Against the back of this flexible mirror the speaker's voice is directed, thus throwing it into a state of vibration ; the vibrations are communicated along the beam of reflected light to the receiving instrument at a distant station. This receiver consists essentially of a selenium cell placed in the focus of a parabolic reflector, and brought into communication with the hearer by means of an ordinary telephone ; the reflected beam being thrown on this cell, the well-known property of selenium to offer a greater or less resistance to the electric current according as it is more or less acted on by light, causes the vibrations of the reflecting mirror to become translated into audible sound in the telephone.

In its present condition it requires a highly practised ear to understand articulate speech transmitted by the photophone. In the experiments which he has hitherto shown in public, Professor Bell makes use of a perforated disc which is made to revolve rapidly and is interposed between the source of light and the selenium cell. The revolution of this disc causes the beam of light to be interrupted at greater or less intervals, and this in the telephone is heard as a musical note. A simple plate of hard rubber placed across the end of a hearing tube is capable of receiving and translating the vibrating beam of light.

BIOLOGY.

A Fresh-water Jelly-fish.—In the early part of last summer Mr. Sowerby, the secretary of the Botanical Society, observed in the tank of the water-lily house in the Society's garden in Regent's Park a number of floating or swimming organisms, which bore a remarkable resemblance to the medusæ or jelly-fish, so common on our coasts. They had the well-known form of the umbrella, opening and shutting in regular movements, as we see in the jelly-fish in the sea. On submitting specimens of this creature to Professor Lankester and Professor Allman, they were pronounced by those competent naturalists to be really individuals of the true medusa class, the interest attaching to them arising from the fact that hitherto no medusa of any kind has been detected in fresh water. As this medusa was found living in

water which is kept at a temperature of from 80° to 90°, it clearly belongs to a tropical species, and was probably introduced into the tank where it was found with the plants of the *Victoria Regia*. Professor Allman proposes to give this new form of jelly-fish the name of *Limnocodium*, or lake-bell, to which, in honour of the discoverer, Mr. Lankester adds the specific name of *Sowerbii*.¹

Vegetation under the Electric Light.—In March last Dr. C. W. Siemens laid before the Royal Society the results of his experiments on the growth of plants under the electric light, results which serve to show that this light, when of sufficient intensity, has the same action in stimulating the vital functions of vegetable life as the sun itself. With an electric centre of light equal to 1,400 candles placed in his greenhouse at a distance of between 6 and 7 feet from growing plants, he has produced effects on vegetation equal to what ordinary daylight in the early spring of the year is capable of developing. More than that, by alternating the employment of sunlight by day and the electric light during a part of the night, he has maintained a state of illumination equivalent to the nightless days of the arctic regions, and has extracted from the plants double work as it were, so that the marvellous growth during the short summer of the high latitudes has been artificially reproduced.

MECHANICS AND ENGINEERING.

The Gotthard Tunnel.—For the second time the Alps have been pierced; the Gotthard tunnel, which is to connect the railways that meet at Zürich on the Swiss side of the Alps with those in Italy, of which Milan is the centre, was on the 29th February 1880 pronounced to be an accomplished fact. On that day the mining parties from the two ends of the tunnel met each other, and it was found that the axes of the two parts corresponded within an inch: a triumph of engineering skill, since from the circumstances of the case no vertical shafts could be made to correct the surveying.

In its dimensions the Gotthard tunnel has a uniform height of rather more than 9½ feet, and in width it varies in different places from a maximum of 26¼ to a minimum of nearly 25 feet.

A new Diving Apparatus.—Mr. Fleuss has invented and introduced an apparatus on an entirely new principle for divers employed in subaqueous operations; it may also be used by firemen who have to enter the suffocating smoke of a burning building, or by a miner who has to encounter the fatal choke-damp. This apparatus consists essentially in a supply of pure oxygen compressed into a small reservoir attached to the diver's helmet. The oxygen can be admitted gradually to mix with the air inside the helmet, while the breath expired by the diver is passed over caustic soda and so deprived of its carbonic acid; all the nitrogen which is left unaffected, together with the remainder of the oxygen not used up in forming the carbonic acid, then returns to the helmet, when having its proper proportion of oxygen restored to it from the reservoir, it becomes an atmosphere fit again for respiration. The reservoir contains a supply of oxygen under a pressure of eight atmospheres to last three hours.

¹ *Nature*, vol. xxii. No. 569, p. 481.



PART II.

CHRONICLE OF EVENTS

IN 1880.

JANUARY.

1. Sir Henry Layard, having received no reply to the note presented by him in reference to the measures taken by the Turkish Government against Herr Köller and Ahmed Tewfik, suspended official relations with the Porte. The Embassy, however, maintained semi-official relations with the Ottoman Government, and Sir Henry Layard had an interview with the Sultan.

— Heavy gales and serious floods reported from various parts of England, especially from the western coast and counties. The principal rivers overflowed and the coasts were strewn with wreckage. From France and Germany similar disasters reported, the Seine, Rhine, and Main having by their overflow occasioned enormous damage.

— The ratification of the Phylloxera Treaty exchanged at Berlin between the representatives of France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Switzerland and Portugal. Servia and Luxembourg signified their intention of joining the convention ; but from Italy and Spain no adhesion was at the time received.

2. The wreck return for 1879 shows a total of 1,688 vessels, with property valued at 25,500,000*l.*, lost, as compared with 1,594 in the previous year. The British-owned ships were returned at 833—valued, with their cargoes, at 19,230,000*l.* The registered tonnage of the lost ships amounted in the aggregate to 850,000 tons, including 170 steam-vessels. About 5,000 lives were lost ; 425 ships of all flags foundered on the British coast, whilst at sea 150 ships were lost through collisions, and about 40 by fire.

3. The discovery made at Schwerin that funds to the amount of 118,000 marks had been purloined from the Grand Ducal Land Treasury. Defalcations were proved to have extended over many years. The only responsible person, the Landrath von Oertzen Woltow, the leader of the Mecklenburg Schwerin feudal party, died from apoplexy the day after the discovery.

4. The special congregation of five Cardinals appointed by the Pope to examine the question of the marriage of the hereditary Prince of Monaco and the Lady Mary Hamilton pronounced the marriage invalid, on the ground of absence of free consent on her part, but affirmed the legitimacy of the son, the issue of their marriage.

— A return issued, showing that since the institution of the order of the Victoria Cross it had been bestowed on 368 officers and men in the naval and military services. Seven who had gained the cross died before it could be conferred, and twenty-seven since they received the honour. Of the 368 members, 171 were commissioned officers, and the remaining 197 non-commissioned officers and privates of both services.

— At 11 A.M. the inhabitants of Roseau, the capital of the island of Dominica, were suddenly plunged in darkness. At the same time came torrents of milk-white water, mixed with black volcanic sand hail, accompanied by subterranean noises—lasting altogether about fifteen minutes. When daylight was restored, the ground was found to be covered with ashes an inch deep, which were traced to the “Boiling Lake” waters at the southern extremity of the island. During the eruption nearly all the rivers of the island overflowed their banks, and the fish in the Point Mutatie river, which flows from the “Boiling Lake,” even those near the estuary, nearly all died.

5. The *Tuam News* states that for the second time since New Year's Day several persons, including two members of the constabulary force, who happened to pass a chapel at Knock, near Claremorris, after nightfall, had seen an unusual light in the gable of the chapel, and an appearance of the Virgin Mary. The news spread rapidly, and the chapel at once became the object of pilgrimage from the adjoining districts.

— The break of the ice on the Seine occasioned great excitement and much damage in Paris and the neighbourhood, and the safety of some of the bridges was for a time in doubt. From other parts of France similar accounts arrived. A high wall of ice, or glacier 1,500 yards long, formed at the junction of the Indre and Loire, forced the rapid stream of the former river to overflow its banks. Considerable loss of property in the neighbourhood of Chinard ensued. Efforts were made to blow up the glacier with dynamite, and subsequently an artificial canal was dug by the military. The break-up did not take place until the 10th February, when the ice floated quietly away through the canal.

— Charles Shurety, aged 29, executed at Newgate for the murder of a child two years old under circumstances of revolting cruelty. A reprieve, forged by a person who had conscientious objections to capital punishment, entailed two months' imprisonment and 50*l.* fine on its author.

— The new Austrian loan of fifteen millions sterling taken up by a syndicate of Austrian, German, French, and Italian bankers at 69·51 per cent., the highest price recorded for an Austrian State Loan.

6. A correspondent of the *Journal de Genève*, writing from Constantinople, gives an interesting account of the organisation of Abdul Hamid's household, which, he says, he has obtained directly from a high officer of the palace. The Sultan has converted the Yildiz Kiosk, his favourite residence, into a sort of Plessis les Tours, surrounded by thick walls, defended by thirty guns and

guarded by a garrison of 3,000 men, and the Turkish court is still the most costly in Europe. The first functionary of the imperial household is the Grand Marshal of the Palace, Osman Pasha, who, besides this office, fills that of Minister of War. Osman's deputy as Grand Marshal is his brother-in-law, Riza Bey, also one of the Sultan's five secretaries. The Sultan has four chief chamberlains, exclusive of several who figure in processions on gala days, carrying the emblems of their office—a bunch of keys—on their backs. Among the latter are the two chief black eunuchs, Bahr Ramoun and Khereddin, who, besides their other titles, enjoy that of "Highness," and are members of the most illustrious orders of the Ottoman Empire. Bahr Ramoun is supposed to favour the pretensions of Russia, while Khereddin is understood to be a warm friend of the English alliance. Twenty-three aides-de-camp are always on duty at the Yildiz Kiosk. Among the other aides-de-camp are two renegades and one Christian, General Vitalis Pasha, the organiser of the Roumanian gendarmerie. The renegades are Monsieur von Helle, formerly an attaché of the Austrian Embassy, and M. de Lobell, whose father was at one time an aide-de-camp of King Leopold of Belgium. The former became a Mohammedan spontaneously, the latter at the direct solicitation of the Sultan, who rewarded his complaisance by a lucrative appointment. Five *musahibs*, or talkers, are charged with the duty of relieving the tedium of His Majesty's unoccupied moments by lively conversation, by reading aloud, and by retailing in the royal ear the gossip of the capital, with which they are supplied by sixty spies specially told off for this purpose. The Sultan's health is watched over by five physicians, the first of whom is a Greek, Dr. Mavrogeni, a member of the illustrious Phanariote family of that name. The Imperial establishment includes four chaplains, or *imaums*, and four astrologers. To an officer called the *Guidisch Mudiri* is assigned the duty of accompanying His Majesty on his walks or excursions. The Mudir is a functionary through whom all orders are conveyed to the working *personnel* of the palace. Then there are directors of the private apartments, of the Imperial Privy Purse, and of the palace telegraph (the last-named of whom has the assistance of ten *employés*), five librarians, and a secretary, who receives and reads the not very numerous petitions addressed to the Sultan by his faithful subjects. A buffoon, a company of Turkish singers, a brass band (the leader of which is an Italian, enjoying the rank and emoluments of a Pasha), and five pianists, who have the privilege of giving lessons to the princes and princesses of the Imperial family, complete the hierarchy of the *Mabein*, or men's department of the Sultan's household. The menial duties of the palace are for the most part performed by women. The sultanas, of whom there are four, and the *odalisques*, who are reckoned at eighty, are guarded by 120 black eunuchs. Many of the latter are waited on by one or two women servants, and in former times the most highly placed of them lived "as luxuriously as princes." Among the inferior domestic servants of the Sultan there are ten "table masters," who cater for the palace kitchens and see that the Imperial tables are duly supplied with food and properly served. Next come ten *maîtres d'hôtel*, who superintend the ordering of the *menus* and the cooking of the meats. The cooks and turnspits who receive their commands number 300, while the services of 200 waiters are required in the different dining-rooms of the Yildiz Kiosk. Besides the inmates of the palace, many persons living in its immediate neighbourhood draw by prescriptive right their daily supplies of food from the Imperial kitchens. It

is estimated that 800 families, including 4,000 individuals, live in this way at the Sultan's expense. Abdul-Hamid employs in his four palaces 100 porters, of whom twenty-five are attached to the Yildiz Kiosk, and twenty-five watchmen are afoot during the night. They are all under the command of a *Capoud gi Bachi*. Ten servants are charged with the sole duty of carrying and unfolding the Sultan's carpet when he goes to prayer. Ten others, called *tutundjis*, have the care of His Majesty's pipes and tobacco. Ten *Cafedjis* give all their time to the roasting, grinding, and making of His Majesty's coffee. The due order of the Imperial wardrobe is assured by the constant attention of twenty properly qualified *employés*; thirteen others keep an eye on the Imperial valise, five armourers are responsible for the perfect condition of the Sultan's arms, eight men look after the chandeliers, torches, and flambeaux, and eight take charge of the aviaries and aquariums. The master of the Imperial stables has under his orders 220 coachmen and grooms; and 100 boatmen receive their instructions from the master-rower. The expenses of such an establishment as that of the Yildiz Kiosk are necessarily enormous; the Sultan's civil list figures in the Turkish Budget for a million sterling, but the writer states, on the authority of his official informant, that the actual expenses of His Majesty's household, harem, and palaces reach a total of at least 2,200,000*l.* annually.

7. The final official reports on the French vintage of 1879 published, showing the total yield to have been 25,700,000 hectolitres, or 23,000,000 less than the yield of 1878, and nearly 30,000,000 below the average of the preceding years. In the Burgundy and the Champagne districts the yield was next to nothing, whilst the Bordeaux country (Upper and Lower Charente) scarcely reached one-third of the vintage of 1878. In the eastern departments (Meurthe, Moselle, and Doubs) only one-tenth was obtained.

— According to official returns the land under vine culture in Germany in 1879 amounted to 297,410 acres, producing 3,000,000 hectolitres (over 66,000,000 gallons). The produce of Prussia did not exceed 360,000 hectolitres. In Alsace-Lorraine 450,000 hectolitres were made, and about the same quantity in Baden; 300,000 in Hesse, and the bulk of the remainder in Wurtemberg. Rhine wine, properly so called, formed about one-tenth of the entire produce of Germany.

— The total traffic returns of the Prussian railways were less by 5,000,000 marks in 1879 than in the preceding year, notwithstanding additional lines to the extent of 1,625 miles had been opened.

8. In an address delivered at the Huddersfield Chamber of Commerce, the Earl of Derby, reviewing the state of trade in the country, considered the prospect was hopeful. Allowing American competition to be formidable, he maintained that there was room for both, whilst our Continental competitors were overburdened by their military system.

— According to the returns of the Registrar-General the deaths in London during the first week of the year exceeded thirty-one per thousand of the population.

— According to a statistical return issued by M. de Malarce, assisted by foreign statesmen and scholars, the progress of Savings Banks in various European countries in four years is thus summarised :—

	Population.	1874.		1878.
		No. of depositors	Amount deposited	
		247,000,000	12,500,000	16,000,000
			320,000,000l.	380,000,000l.
	Population.	Depositors.		Amount deposited.
France	37,000,000	1874—2,170,000	22,920,000l.	
		1878—3,100,000	40,600,000l.	
Prussia	25,700,000	1874—2,059,665	49,280,000l.	
		1878—2,500,528	65,000,000l.	
Italy	28,000,000	1874— 676,237	17,840,000l.	
		1878—1,111,474	25,880,000l.	
Austria	20,000,000	1874—1,263,357	13,920,000l.	
		1878—1,423,926	74,840,000l.	
Great Britain and Ireland	34,000,000	1874—3,132,493	64,600,000l.	
		1878—3,408,481	74,640,000l.	

9. The number of passengers killed in railway accidents in Prussia in 1879 stated officially to be 12, and 46 wounded. Of these 8 fatal and 16 of the non-fatal cases were owing to the want of caution in entering and alighting from carriages. The deaths were one in every $9\frac{1}{2}$ million passengers, and the wounded one in every $2\frac{1}{2}$ million. Of the railway officials (9,400) there was an accident to every 171 employed, and of railway labourers (85,200) one in every 120.

— In Great Britain, according to official returns, the total number of persons killed on railways during the year 1879 was 1,032, and those injured were 3,513. In addition to these 42 were killed and 2,315 injured upon railway premises by accidents unconnected with the movements of vehicles exclusively used on railways.

10. M. Verhovay, a member of the Hungarian Parliament and the editor of a Pesth newspaper, seriously wounded in a duel by Baron Maythenyi, a member of the Upper House, one of whose relatives had been censured in articles published in M. Verhovay's paper. Popular disturbances ensued in Pesth when the news became known, both the police and military having to be called out, and in the fray two lives were lost. Both combatants were subsequently tried by the Civil Tribunal, which sentenced Baron Maythenyi to six weeks and Deputy Verhovay to a fortnight's imprisonment.

— Father Bakenowski, chaplain to the Catholic Poles in London, whilst officiating at the Italian church, Hatton Garden, fired at by Alexander Schossa, a Milanese, whilst in the act of raising the host. The bullet lodged in the altar. Schossa then fired four shots in rapid succession, but without wounding anyone. He then rushed to the altar, throwing down the candlesticks, breaking open the tabernacle and injuring the pyx, chalice, and other sacred vessels, finally setting fire to the altar linen and ante-pendium, a gift of the ladies of Genoa and valued at 150l. ; the total damage done to the church is estimated at 1,000l. After a struggle, in which Schossa defended himself with a dagger, he was secured by Father Arkell and others. Subsequently tried and sentenced to penal servitude for life.

11. The Sultan announced to Sir Henry Layard that Ahmed Tewfik, the police-officer who had arrested Dr. Köller on a charge of proselytizing, would be banished to the island of Chio, and the sentence passed by the religious authorities upon the Mollah would be declared null and void. The British Ambassador, having declared himself satisfied, added that he would resume

diplomatic relations with the Porte. Subsequently the Sultan conferred the Grand Cordon of the Medjidie upon Hafiz Pasha, the Police Minister under whose orders Ahmed Tewfik is supposed to have acted, and whose dismissal had been demanded by Sir Henry Layard.

12. St. Kitts, one of the Leeward Islands, with a population of about 28,000, ravaged by a flood, which destroyed property to the value of 60,000*l.*, and occasioned the loss of 200 lives. The rain began early on the morning of the previous day, swelling the mountain streams, which became torrents, sweeping away everything in their course to the sea. Basseterre, the capital, suffered severely; many houses were washed away and all the streets and squares so filled with sand and débris as to be scarcely recognisable.

— Colonel Gordon resigned the Governorship of Central Africa, to which he had been appointed by the late Khedive, in February 1874. His mission was to establish regular government in a district measuring 1,400 miles from north to south, and 1,500 miles from east to west; to create facilities for commerce; and to destroy the slave trade. Although only partially successful he succeeded in dealing a decisive blow to slavery on the White Nile, and in establishing peace and order in the district between Khartoum and Foweira (2° N. lat).

13. The French Chambers reassembled, and in the Chamber of Deputies M. Gambetta was re-elected President by 259 votes—as compared with 363 in 1877 and 314 in 1879.

— According to the Budget of the German Foreign Office presented to the Federal Council the Secretary of State's salary is to be raised from 1,800*l.* to 3,000*l.* per annum.

— The *Gewerb-Verein*, the organ of the German Trades Societies, called attention to the distress prevailing in Silesia, where even in fertile districts the agricultural labourers earn only 7½*d.* to 8½*d.* a day, live on potatoes and whey cheese, and dwell in huts of the most wretched description. The tenant farmers are but little better off; and throughout the greater part of the province famine reported to prevail.

14. According to the return of Captain Shaw, presented to the Metropolitan Board of Works, the number of calls for fires or supposed fires received in the London district during the year 1879 was 1,949. Of these 116 were false alarms, 115 were merely chimney fires, and of the remainder only 159 resulted in serious damage. The number of cases in which lives were seriously endangered was 96, and the number of lives lost was 32, of whom 15 were taken out alive but died subsequently, and 17 were burned to death or suffocated.

— The Court of Appeal at Rome, reversing the decision of the Court of First Instance, declared Giuseppe Garibaldi and Giuseppina Raimondi free from the tie of marriage celebrated at Como on January 24, 1860.

15. At a general council of the Royal Academy it was resolved that ladies should in future be eligible for election as Academicians and Associates, enjoying the same privileges as male members, except that they should not be permitted to vote at elections, nor have the right to be present at the annual banquet.

— Rioting continued at Pesth, and, in spite of the efforts made by the authorities to prevent a collision, an encounter took place with the police in

a street where the populace had destroyed the gas lamps. On the arrival of the military the mob dispersed and quiet was restored.

16. In the Saxon Chamber of Deputies the motion to return to a double standard of currency, in place of the single standard introduced into the German Empire, rejected by an overwhelming majority, only nine members supporting the proposal.

— Treaty of peace signed between the chiefs of New Calabar and Bonny, and forwarded to the British Government.

— According to a return made by the Accountant-General of the Navy, the following sums have been spent on the construction of ships in the Royal Navy in Royal and private yards:—

	Ironclads.	Unarmoured.	Total.
1869-70 . . .	£1,076,348 . .	£310,699 . .	£1,387,047
1870-71 . . .	1,014,215 . .	316,599 . .	1,330,814
1871-72 . . .	695,038 . .	489,134 . .	1,184,172
1872-73 . . .	299,825 . .	509,262 . .	809,087
1873-74 . . .	385,959 . .	904,069 . .	1,290,028
1874-75 . . .	742,164 . .	785,997 . .	1,528,161
1875-76 . . .	1,058,463 . .	554,755 . .	1,613,218
1876-77 . . .	940,318 . .	1,181,642 . .	2,121,960
1877-78 . . .	1,948,472 . .	973,970 . .	2,922,442

The expenditure for repairs during the same period was—

	Ironclads.	Unarmoured.	Total.
1869-70 . . .	£130,743 . .	£446,549 . .	£577,292
1870-71 . . .	182,065 . .	478,551 . .	669,616
1871-72 . . .	87,595 . .	397,342 . .	484,937
1872-73 . . .	158,923 . .	386,983 . .	545,916
1873-74 . . .	291,381 . .	524,601 . .	815,982
1874-75 . . .	320,229 . .	672,570 . .	992,799
1875-76 . . .	321,871 . .	631,806 . .	953,677
1876-77 . . .	207,446 . .	600,210 . .	807,656
1877-78 . . .	489,182 . .	580,243 . .	1,069,425

The total paid for ironclads in the year 1877-8 includes the sums paid for the purchase of ships building for foreign Governments, and thus apportioned—

Belleisle, ironclad . . .	£240,138	including armament.
Neptune „ . . .	614,051	including armament
Orion „ . . .	126,825	and other stores.
Superb „ . . .	453,033	including armament.
Hecla, unarmoured . . .	79,000	including stores but
Torpedo lighters and other		not armament.
boats	9,850	
Miscellaneous expenditure	300	
Total	£1,523,197	

— Messrs. Davitt, Killen, and Brennan, charged with sedition, appeared at the Crown Office, Dublin, when it was found there were no stamped forms of the required nature. Having thus fulfilled their legal obligation to appear, and having subsequently surrendered at the assizes, and not being required to renew their recognizances, the prosecution was allowed to drop.

17. Mr. James Russell Lowell, author of the well-known “Biglow Papers,” published in 1864, and other more serious works, nominated by the President of the United States to be American Minister to England.

— The official statistics of the enrolled strength of the Volunteer Force at the beginning of the year show a maximum establishment of 245,185 ; of whom 197,485 were efficient ; the non-efficients, 8,765 ; supernumeraries, 5,421 ; proficient officers, 5,586 ; and proficient sergeants, 11,825. The five regiments of light horse numbered 509 sabres ; the artillery, 37,771 ; the engineers, 8,792 ; the mounted rifles, 94 ; and the infantry, 157,459. The percentage of efficiency to enrolled strength, 95·74, is higher than at any previous period.

— Over three thousand unemployed workmen held, in Hyde Park, a meeting, at which it was stated that in the building trade alone thirty thousand men were out of employ ; and that public bodies were not proceeding with works of utility already agreed upon. A body of delegates was appointed to wait on the Lord Mayor, who promised to use his influence with the contractors for the New Mint and Flower Market.

19. Serious inundations in Holland. The dyke on the Meuse between Oyen and Teefeln gave way, doing great damage to Bois-le-duc and other places, and interrupting trains on the Utrecht line. Fears at one time were entertained for the Noorde Lekolyk, the bursting of which would have inundated the country between Rotterdam and Amsterdam.

— The Saxon Minister of State announced in the Chambers the intention of the German Government to found colonies in the South Sea Islands.

20. The new Birmingham Reform Club inaugurated by a dinner given to Sir W. Harcourt, Mr. John Bright, and others. Mr. Bright in his speech gave a brilliant sketch of the history of the Liberal party and programme during the past fifty years.

— The statutes of the Trans-Caucasian Railway Company approved by the Russian Government. By these they are required to submit plans within eight months, and to commence, within thirty days afterwards, two lines, one uniting Baku and Poti, with a junction in Tiflis, the whole length being 531 versts ; and another from Baku to Sabuntshi and Surachan, with a branch line to Naphta.

— The Home Rule League met in Dublin, under the presidency of the Lord Mayor, forty members of Parliament being present. A resolution was passed, strongly censuring the Government for its mode of dealing with Irish distress.

21. At the Leycett Colliery, Newcastle-under-Lyme, a terrible explosion took place, whereby the lives of sixty miners were lost. The pit was notoriously a fiery one, and in September of last year an explosion had occurred in the workings which killed eight men.

— A duel took place on the Belgian frontier between M. Waddington, the son of the French ex-Prime Minister, and a provincial journalist. The distance was 30 feet, with the option of advancing 10 feet. M. Waddington slightly wounded his adversary with his first shot, and missed altogether with the other.

22. At a meeting of the Statistical Society, a paper was read by Mr. G. Phillips Bevan, on the " Strikes of the Last Ten Years." The total number of strikes between January 1, 1870, and December 31, 1879, was 2,352, the greatest number occurring in 1871—343—and 1872—365 ; dates corresponding with the greatest inflation of prices. The number of trades implicated

in strikes during the ten years was 111 ; of which the builders headed the list with 598 strikes ; the carpenters and joiners, 187 ; and the masons, 151 ; colliers, 339 ; textile trades, 277. As to the outcome of the 2,352, no record could be found of more than 351, and from this it appears that of these 189 had been lost ; 71 won ; and 91 compromised. The ten highest towns on the list were :—Glasgow, 85 ; Leeds, 73 ; Sheffield, 66 ; Edinburgh, 65 ; Newcastle, 63 ; London, 56 ; Barnsley, 48 ; Dundee, 46 ; Merthyr, 45 ; and Manchester, 44.

23. Dr. Gerrard Small, who commenced practice as a physician in Rome in 1832, when Sir Walter Scott visited the city, attacked and robbed in his own house by two men, who, having brutally maltreated him, decamped with everything they could find. They were, however speedily arrested, and confessed that they had been instigated by a former servant, whom Dr. Small had recently discharged.

— The new German Military Law laid before the Prussian Deputies fixing the force at the end of 1881 at 427,270, as the peace footing of the German army. Seven new line regiments are to be formed, and a sharp-shooter battalion. By this measure the peace establishment of the army consists of 469 infantry battalions ; 465 cavalry squadrons ; 300 field batteries ; 116 companies of foot artillery ; and 74 companies of sappers and miners. The returns of other military nations give the following results :— France, 641 infantry battalions ; 326 dépôt companies ; 392 squadrons of cavalry ; 437 field batteries ; 57 companies of foot artillery ; and 112 companies of sappers and miners. Russia has at her disposal 879 infantry battalions ; 406 squadrons of cavalry ; 373 field batteries ; 202 companies of foot artillery ; 76 companies of sappers and miners.

24. The tombs of eight princes of the House of Este, who died between 1658 and 1753, discovered in a mortuary chamber attached to the Capuchin Church at Modena.

— The German military estimates for 1880–1, presented to the Federal Council, show a total of 292,185,916 marks : not including the sum required for Bavaria, which has a separate Budget

— The German Agricultural Council, a body elected by the Central Agricultural Associations of the German States, in its annual meeting at Berlin, generally condemned the new customs tariff as injurious to the community at large, and to agriculture in particular. It was, however, decided not to agitate for its repeal, but to urge on the Government the need of commercial treaties on the most-favoured nation principle, especially with Austria.

26. A discussion took place in the Hungarian Diet at Pesth, on the recent street riots in that capital. According to the version of the Minister-President, the first gathering took place on the 11th instant, outside the National Club, on which occasion the police tried at first to disperse the assembly peaceably. After many warnings from the Chief of the Police, a small detachment of soldiers was sent for. On the promise, however, of the popular delegates that the crowd should retire, the military were withdrawn, but the people remained for a time longer. On the next day there was some shouting, but nothing serious occurred. On the 13th instant the great riot occurred, when the windows of the National Club were broken. The mounted police having proved of no avail, the military were called out,

but, in spite of the darkness and the pressure of the crowd, only two persons were injured. On the following day the rioting was renewed ; shots were fired from the crowd, and were returned. A student was killed and several persons wounded.

— The civil marriage between Garibaldi and Donna Francesca performed at Rome ; the General at the same time recognizing her two children, Manlio and Celia.

27. A great fire, supposed to be the work of an incendiary, broke out in Jassy. The Administrative Palace was first set on fire, and rapidly extended to the adjacent buildings, which continued burning for nearly three days. Simultaneously a fire destroyed the greater part of the Roumanian barracks at Fokschari.

— At the Birmingham Town Hall, Cardinal Newman, presiding over a large gathering of local Roman Catholics and others, explained the causes of the altered attitude of Protestants towards Roman Catholics during the past thirty years. He expressed his regret for the so-called Papal aggression, which aroused so much indignation and alarm.

28. The Lake of Constance frozen over for a second time this winter, the skaters crossing, for the first time since 1830, from Switzerland to Wurtemberg and the Vorarlberg shores. The rivers and streams of the Black Forest filled with huge blocks of ice. The Lake of Gmunden and other lakes of the Salzkammergut also completely frozen over, as well as the lakes of Zurich, Morat, Bienne, and Neuchatel for a second time. The Danube frozen from the Iron Gate to above Vienna ; while even a portion of the Lake of Lugano was covered with ice, a phenomenon with no known precedent.

— The following letter relating to Lady Belasyse, published in *The Times*, " Sir,—I observed in *The Times* of the 19th inst. a paragraph referring to the statement of Bishop Burnet that Lady Belasyse kept a copy of the promise of the Duke of York (James II.) to marry her. A gentlemen, now dead, long solicitor to my family, told me that this copy was in the possession of my great-grandfather, the first Lord Wodehouse, and that he had frequently seen it. It has since disappeared, and is believed to have been burnt, with other papers of interest. The patent creating her a peeress is in my possession. She was daughter and co-heiress of Sir William Armine. Her other sister married Sir Thomas Wodehouse, from whom I am descended.

Your obedient servant,

KIMBERLEY."

" Kimberley-house, Wymondham, Norfolk, Jan. 28."

29. The *Gazette* of St. Petersburg, referring to the rumoured alliance of Germany and Austria, and regarding it as a menace against Russia, states that the two former Powers can bring into the field 2,433,044 soldiers, with 63,036 officers, to whom Russia could only oppose 1,786,420 soldiers, and 43,881 officers.

— An artisan having addressed Field Marshal von Moltke upon the ever-increasing military burden of the nation, and the extreme desirability of putting a stop to these ruinous armaments, the Field Marshal replied :—

" Surely we all sincerely wish to alleviate the military burden which Germany, owing to her situation in the midst of the most powerful States, is unfortunately necessitated to bear. Both Sovereigns and Governments are agreed upon this point. Yet I am afraid that a happier state of things will

only supervene when all nations are convinced that, however victorious, war is in itself a calamity which should be avoided. Great as the power of the German Emperor is, he is impotent to make this conviction universal. It will some day be based upon a better religious and moral education, which can be only the result of centuries of historical development, and which neither of us will live to see."

30. One of the four students of Girton College, Miss C. A. Scott, who were examined in the papers set for the mathematical tripos at Cambridge, was awarded marks equal to those obtained by the eighth wrangler; the remaining three would have been placed among the junior optimes. In the moral science tripos, Miss Mary Martin, and in the modern history tripos Miss Alice Gardner and Miss Edith Marchant were adjudged to have earned places in the first class.

— On the occasion of a domiciliary visit of the St. Petersburg police to a suspected house, three men and two women were discovered in a room which contained two printing-presses, a quantity of inflammatory proclamations, and a complete issue of the revolutionary journal *Narodnaya Volya* ("Will of the People"). When the door was opened, and the police recognised, the inmates began firing with revolvers; but in consequence of the smoke only one police officer was wounded. The gendarmes speedily arrived, and two men and the two women surrendered; the fifth having shot himself, seeing escape hopeless.

31. The Empress of Russia left Cannes for St. Petersburg, arrangements having been made that no change of carriage would be requisite. A steam-engine fixed in one of the carriages maintained an even temperature throughout the train. Provisions of all sorts for a fortnight's consumption were carried and prepared on the journey.

— The French Budget for the year 1881 laid on the table of the Chamber of Deputies; the receipts being estimated at 2,777,193,000 frs., and the expenditure at 2,773,391,000 frs. The principal items of the latter, in addition to the interest on the debt, were the war estimates, 574,483,478 frs.—an increase of six and a half millions—the navy estimates, 168,000,000, and public instruction, 64,000,000.

— The Haymarket Theatre reopened, under the management of Mr. and Mrs. Bancroft, with Lord Lytton's play of "Money." Amongst the alterations effected was the abolition of the pit, and the substitution of a second gallery. A loud and sustained expression of dissatisfaction interrupted the performance for a long time, but after listening to an explanation from Mr. Bancroft the piece was at length allowed to go on.

FEBRUARY.

1. Great indignation aroused in parts of Russia by the discovery that an archbishop and two bishops of the Starobryatsi, or Old Believers, had been lying in the prison of Suzcalya, for having adhered to their faith, for twenty-six, twenty-two, and seventeen years respectively. The bishops had been placed under the custody of the monks of the Convent of Suzcal.

— The report of the French Minister of Public Instruction shows that, whereas in 1837 there were for every 10,000 of the inhabitants of France

752 pupils, in 1877 there were 1,281. In 1837 there were 5,677 communes in which no school was to be found, and at the close of 1879 there were only 298. In the same period the number of conscripts who could read had risen from 42 per cent. to 85 per cent. who could both read and write. The total number of educational establishments was 73,110, and the scholars in attendance were 4,980,650.

— The official statistics of Italian education for the academical year 1878-9 show that there were 278 institutions for secondary education in the peninsula. Of these 105 were "lyceums" and 173 "gymnasiums." Of the lyceums, 83 belonging to the State had 5,775 scholars, while there were 775 in 22 private lyceums; 109 State gymnasiums had 11,603 pupils, and 64 private gymnasiums had 5,251 pupils. The entire number of pupils receiving secondary instruction was, therefore, 23,404. There were also in Italy 164 technical schools and 63 technical institutes having altogether 21,403 pupils.

3. A serious railway accident occurred just outside Paris, at Clichy, on the Western Railway. Owing to the dense fog, two passenger trains came into collision, and twelve persons were killed and more than thirty seriously injured.

— A large meeting of ladies in connection with the Women's Suffrage movement held in the Free Trade Hall, Manchester, Mrs. Duncan McLaren (sister to Mr. John Bright) presiding. A supplementary meeting of those unable to obtain admission was held at the same time at the Memorial Hall.

4. The trials with the "Thunderer's" second 38-ton gun brought to a close. After various experiments, it was loaded with a double charge, with an interval between the two charges. The result was that it was asserted to have burst almost exactly as the other when the accident happened last year, but this was strenuously denied by many scientific witnesses.

— According to a carefully-prepared report laid before the Communal Administration of Antwerp, Rubens left behind him 2,235 pictures, of which 228 are sketches; and there are in addition 484 known drawings by him. Of the pictures and sketches, 829 have never been produced; 670 of his works are only known by reproductions; and of 293 all trace has been lost. It was decided to complete the collection by photographs, or otherwise, in order that every available work of the master should be in a place in the Rubens Gallery of the Museum.

— The Empress of Austria reached Dublin, and at once started for Summerhill, where she remained for six weeks of the hunting season.

— The London School Board Budget 1880-1 showed the amount required for the service of the year to be 643,791*l.*, being an increase of 92,544*l.* on the previous year. To meet this expenditure a rate of 6½*d.* in the pound, against 5½*d.*, would be needed.

5. Parliament opened by the Queen in person.

— The results of the census taken this day throughout Denmark showed that, including the Farøe Islands, the total population was 1,980,675 souls. In 1870 the total was 1,784,741.

6. Mr. Whitley, a local solicitor, returned as Conservative member for Liverpool, by 26,106 votes, against 23,885 given to Lord Ramsay, the Liberal candidate, who received the support of the Irish Home Rule party. Mr. Torr, Q.C., the late member, was a Conservative.

7. The report of the Registrar-General showed that in this week the deaths

registered in London were 3,376, exceeding by 1,657 the average of the corresponding week of the last ten years. The rate was equal to 48·1 per thousand annually, and showed that cold and fog were more prejudicial to life than the cholera epidemics of 1849, 1854, and 1866.

— In Paris the mortality was also very high ; six hundred more than the average during the corresponding week of the last three years. The deaths from typhus fever were returned at 101, and from smallpox 72.

8. Dr. Barnard Davis, a physician residing at Shelton, Staffordshire, presented to the Hunterian Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons a valuable collection of crania and skeletons illustrating all the variations in the human species found in every known part of the world. The number of specimens exceeds 1,800, and forms perhaps the richest anthropological collection in Europe.

— The Huddersfield Theatre burned down ; the only portion saved was that occupied by the buffet and a few dressing-rooms.

9. The Theatre Royal, Dublin, totally destroyed, caused by the curtain of the Viceregal Box catching fire. A morning performance was to have been given, in aid of the Irish Relief Fund, and although the audience had not arrived a large number of actors and attendants were in the house. Mr. Egerton, the stage manager, and five other persons lost their lives. The theatre had been built in 1820 on the site of the old meat market.

— Floods caused in Sicily by eleven days' continuous rain, communication between Messina and Syracuse suspended, and the plain of Catania converted into an immense lake. Great damage also done by the floods in the island of Sardinia.

— The Lake of Zirknitz, in Carniola, stated to be a solid mass of ice, all the fish being killed ; many of the lakes of Upper Austria also said to be frozen solid. The lakes of Constance, Zurich, and Neuchâtel, quite frozen over, made the scenes of "jubilee" fêtes. The Main at Mayence, and the Rhine at Bingen and elsewhere, frozen.

— The Empress of Austria, hunting with the Ward hounds, met with a slight accident. Her horse ploughed at a fence, and the Empress was thrown, but sustained no damage.

— A sculling match took place on the Tyne between William Elliott of Blyth, and Robert Watson Boyd of Gateshead, over the course from the High Level Bridge to Scotswood Suspension Bridge, about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The race, after some severe struggles, was won by Boyd by six lengths in 22 min. 47 sec.

10. A statement appeared in the *Times* to the effect that the British Government had consented to cancel the clause of the Treaty of 1857 (made after the conclusion of the Persian war) by which Persia is forbidden to occupy Herat. It was added that the Shah was to be invited to send thither a body of troops, who, commanded by British officers, would permanently garrison the fortress, and protect a British diplomatic agent.

— A conference of delegates from various trades councils, trades and agricultural societies, met at St. James' Hall, under the presidency of Mr. Charles Bradlaugh, to consider the question of Land Law Reform. Amongst the proposals adopted were the abolition of the game laws and of the law of entail ; assimilation of the law of distribution of real and personal estate in

cases of intestacy; compulsory cultivation of waste lands; revaluation in view of an improved land tax, etc.

— At a meeting of the Royal Scottish Academy, Mr. Norman Macbeth and Mr. Otto T. Leyde, associates, were elected to fill the vacancies among the academicians caused by the deaths of Mr. Sam Bough and Mr. James Cassie.

11. Thirty tons of fresh meat, preserved by a new process which keeps the air round the meat at a low temperature, brought to London in the "Strathnairn" from Australia, and landed in excellent condition.

— Alexander Schossa tried for shooting at Father Bakenowski, one of the priests of the Italian Church, Hatton Garden; found guilty, and sentenced to penal servitude for life. A similar sentence, it was said, had been passed upon him in Milan in 1874 for manslaughter.

12. Lord Lymington (Liberal) was returned for Barnstaple, in the place of Mr. Waddy, Q.C., also a Liberal, by 817 votes against 721 polled by the Conservative candidate, Alderman Sir Robert Carden.

— In French Chamber of Deputies, Louis Blanc's bill for a plenary amnesty of the political Criminals of the Commune rejected by 313 against 115, after a vigorous speech from M. de Freycinet, the new premier, on the precedence of the interests of society over the convenience of individuals.

— The German Parliament opened, Count Stolberg reading the Emperor's speech, in which the peaceful intentions of Germany were referred to and the need of an increase to the army insisted on. Sanction for protracting the Anti-Socialist laws for six years longer was to be asked, and a Bill for taking the Budget triennially to be introduced.

— A terrific gale, extending over many hundred miles of the Atlantic, occasioned a terrible loss of lives and shipping. In it the training ship "Atalanta," a sister ship to the "Eurydice" which had been lost in 1878 off the Isle of Wight, is supposed to have foundered with all on board—300 officers and men, under the command of Capt. Sterling, R.N. The "Atalanta" left Bermuda on 31st January, and was never again heard of, and no trace of her has since been found.

13. The election for the vacant seat for Southwark resulted in the return of the Conservative candidate, Mr. Edward Clarke, by 7,683 against 6,830 given to Mr. Dunn, the Liberal, and 799 to Mr. Shipton, the working men's candidate. The poll remained open until 8 p.m., being the first election held since the passing of Sir Charles Dilke's Act for extending the hours of polling in the metropolis.

— The *Jewish World* published a correction of Lord Beaconsfield's family pedigree as it appears in the preface to the last edition of Isaac Disraeli's collected works, where it is stated that the family name was Lara, and that Lord Beaconsfield's grandfather assumed the name of Disraeli, "never borne before," when flying from the Spanish Inquisition. This grandfather, named also Benjamin, had two wives. The first was Rebecca, daughter of Gaspar Mendes Furtado, of Portugal. Her mother, Abigail, fled to England with her six children, and died in 1764. Of these, Rebecca married Benjamin Disraeli, and died leaving one daughter, Rachel. Her husband subsequently remarried, and had an only son, who was the father of Lord Beaconsfield.

14. The Princess Louise (Marchioness of Lorne) met with a serious accident

at Ottawa whilst sleighing. By some mischance the sleigh, which was a covered one, was upset, and the Princess was thrown head foremost against one of the rods supporting the roof. The sleigh was dragged on through the darkness for some 400 yards, when the horses slackened their pace. The Marquis of Lorne and Mrs. Langham, the Princess's companion, received serious bruises, while the Princess's ear was severely cut, and her head much contused.

— The mail train on the Andalusian Railway going from Cordova to Madrid was attacked about midnight by a band of brigands. The line had been taken up for a distance of some yards, and though the engine had slackened speed the train ran off the track, causing a severe shock to the passengers. In the confusion the brigands attempted to pillage the treasure and mails. Amongst the passengers, however, was Marshal Serrano, who speedily rallied the gendarmes and some of the passengers, and after a few minutes' struggle the brigands were beaten off and decamped without any booty.

15. The results of the census taken in Greece give a population of 1,679,000 against 1,457,000 in 1870; and a return from Bosnia and Herzegovina gives 1,142,147, of whom 442,500 are Mahomedan, 487,022 Orthodox Greeks, and 208,950 Roman Catholics.

— Père Hyacinthe (Rev. H. Loyson) gave an account of the progress of the Gallican Church (Old Catholics) during the past year. He said public feeling in France, among Catholics, Protestants, and Jews alike, seemed opposed to any change, as the number of his adherents did not increase rapidly. The total income of the Church had been about 45,000 frs. (1,800*l.*), of which only 6,000 frs. had been collected in the churches, the remainder having been subscribed by English and American friends.

16. From a return published, there appear to be thirty-four persons in the United Kingdom who are owners of land to the extent of above 100,000 acres. Duke of Buccleuch, 459,260; J. Matheson, 424,560; Lord Breadalbane, 372,279; J. Schofield, 305,891; Duke of Richmond, 286,407; Lord Fife, 257,652; A. Matheson, 220,433; Duke of Athole, 194,640; Duke of Devonshire, 193,381; Duke of Northumberland, 185,515; Duke of Argyll, 175,114; Marquis Conyngham, 173,314; C. W. Ross, 166,806; Evan Baillie, 165,648; R. S. Mackenzie, 164,680; Lord Lovat, 161,574; Lord Dalhousie, 138,021; Lord Willoughby d'Eresby, 132,320; McDonald, 129,910; Duke of Sutherland, 129,125; McIntosh, 124,181; Marquis of Downshire, 122,995; Marquis of Sligo, 122,902; Donald Cameron, 121,574; Lord Fitzwilliam, 113,963; J. S. Chisholm, 113,255; Lord Leconfield, 110,720; J. R. Farquharson, 109,501; Lord Waterford, 109,234; Lord Middleton, 106,462; Lord Kenmare, 105,359; Duke of Montrose, 103,760; Duke of Cleveland, 102,774; Lord Cawdor, 101,657.

— Forty persons in service in the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg arrested on suspicion of being connected with the Nihilist party.

17. A few minutes before the Czar and his guests, including the Prince Alexander of Hesse, the Prince of Bulgaria and the Duchess of Edinburgh, were about to sit down to dinner in the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg, an explosion took place beneath the dining-room. As far as could be ascertained 124 lbs. of dynamite had been stowed in a cellar beneath the guard-room, which occupied the floor beneath it and the Czar's dining-room. Ten men

of the Finland Guard were killed and fifty-three wounded, of whom two or three died subsequently, the guard-room floor being completely shattered. The damage done to the dining-room was trifling, and had the explosion, which was attributed to the Nihilist Revolutionary party, taken place after the guests had entered the room, no harm would have happened to them.

— King Humbert opened the new Session of the Italian Parliament by a speech in which he insisted upon the necessity for abolishing the grist-tax and for reducing the suffrage.

— M. Victorien Sardou's new play of "Daniel Rochat" produced at the Théâtre Français, and gave rise to strong manifestations of approval or disapproval, according to the political views of those present.

18. The Annual Conference of the Associated Chambers of Commerce held in London, under the presidency of Mr. Sampson Lloyd, M.P. The principal subjects discussed and approved were postal notes and postal conveyance of parcels, the need of a Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture, the codification of the laws on bills of exchange, &c. The Japanese Ambassador, who was present, stated that Chambers of Commerce had been established in the principal commercial centres in Japan, with marked results; and Mr. Childers referred to the proposals abroad for the establishment of a Zollverein of the Latin and another of the Teutonic nations of Europe.

19. The Duc d'Audriffet-Pasquier received at the French Academy as successor to Monsignor Dupanloup, the Bishop of Orleans, whose *éloge* was pronounced by the new member, referring especially to the militant period of the Bishop's life, when in company with Montalembert and De Falloux he struggled for the liberty of public instruction.

20. Colonel Synge, of the Ottoman Gendarmerie, employed by Sir Henry Layard to distribute relief to the Mussulman refugees, captured and carried off from his horse near Salonica. The brigands, under the leadership of one Nico, demanded a ransom of 15,000*l.* and fifteen gold watches and chains.

— The Commissioners appointed to inquire into certain Municipal Corporations in England and Wales reported that there were 110 corporations not coming within the Act by which such bodies are governed. The revenues are in most cases of small amount, but on the whole have greatly increased since 1835. The Commissioners recommend that in certain boroughs, twenty-five in number (comprising Aldeburgh, Alnwick, Appleby, Christchurch, Henley-on-Thames, Lostwithiel, Malmesbury, Montgomery, Queenborough, Saltash, Wareham, Wilton, Woodstock), their municipal institutions should be retained, but that they should be included in Schedule B of the Act of 1835; and that with regard to the others the Commissioners do not consider it expedient that these corporations should retain municipal powers or magisterial functions, and that the separate jurisdictions and property should fall into their respective counties.

21. The Petroffsky Academy at Moscow, with its various museums, machines, models and valuable collections, totally destroyed by fire.

— Six days' walking match completed at the Agricultural Hall; the champion, Blower Brown, retaining the belt, having accomplished 550 miles before half-past eight in the evening. Hazael was second with 480 miles, and Day third with 430.

— Prince of Wales' Theatre reopened under the management of Mr. Edgar Bruce, with the comedy of "Forget-me-not," by Mr. Hermann

Merivale and Mr. Crawford Grove. The principal part of Sir Horace Welby was played by Mr. John Clayton, his first appearance since his return from America, and that of the Marquise de Montrivart by Miss Geneviève Ward.

23. At a meeting of the Royal Colonial Institute Mr. Staveley Hill, M.P., read a paper on the subject of Colonial Federation, which attracted some attention. He proposed to establish a High State Council, to represent in London all British Colonial dependencies. The Council would be empowered to deal with and legislate upon the following questions :—Domicile, customs duties, weights and measures, coinage, paper money, patents, copyright, posts and telegraphs, law procedure, military and naval organisation, quarantine and other sanitary precautions. The delegates would decide the quota to be contributed by each colony to a general or imperial budget, applicable to carrying out the foregoing proposals. The Council would consist of 71 members, of whom 33 would represent the Home Government and Imperial interests, and 38 (of whom 15 would be elected by Australia) would represent the Colonies.

24. At the annual meeting of the Middlesex Conservative Registration Association, statements were made showing that the Conservatives, who, at the last election, were as two to one, would, in case of a contest at the next election, be as three to one. Lord George Hamilton, M.P., added that similar reports had come from all parts of the country, showing the improved position of the Conservative party.

— Sir John Strachey made his financial statement to the Indian Financial Council, and announced that the results were most favourable. After paying from the ordinary revenue all charges on account of the famine, the Afghan war, and the frontier railway, the budget estimate showed a surplus of 417,000*l.* The war expenses of 1879–80 exceeded three millions, and those of 1880–1 were estimated at over two.

— The Belgian Chamber of Representatives adopted, by 66 against 44 votes, the resolution to transfer the trial of election petitions to the Courts of Appeal. Hitherto inquiries into contested elections had been heard before a jury selected from the provincial councils.

— Cardinal Newman, whilst walking across his room, stepped upon his gown, and fell against the corner of a desk, fracturing one of his ribs.

— A memorial, signed by more than 5,000 persons, presented to Dean Stanley, protesting against the erection of a monument in Westminster Abbey to the memory of Prince Louis Napoleon, and a deputation from the International Peace Association attended with the same object. The Dean stated that the monument would not be erected in the Abbey Church, properly so called, but in the royal mausoleum attached to it. No representation against the proposal had been received from France, and the decision of last year could not now be revoked.

— General Loris Melikoff appointed head of a Supreme Executive Commission omnipotent throughout the whole Russian dominions.

25. According to the Fourth Annual Report of the Coffee Taverns Company, there were already twenty-three taverns established in London alone, which had been frequented by 14,000 to 15,000 customers per diem. In Liverpool, Manchester, and many other parts of the country the movement was steadily progressing.

B

-- The Executive Committee of the Commissioners for the Exhibition of 1851 agreed to the proposals made by the City and Guilds of London to erect at South Kensington, at a cost of 50,000*l.*, a college for advanced technical education.

— A meeting held in Lambeth Palace to hear from the Archbishop of Canterbury an account of the reformation movement going on in the Armenian Church and to consider the mission to this country of Archbishop Migher-ditch.

— A Greek named Papadoupolo, and his brother, Aristarchi Bey, a recent convert to Islamism, arrested at Constantinople on a charge of conspiracy against the life of the Sultan. Twelve bombs and dynamite were found in the house of the former.

26. M. Labiche, the dramatic author, and M. Maxime du Camp, a writer on social subjects, elected members of the French Academy, to fill the seats of MM. Silvestre de Sacy and Saint-René Taillandier. Amongst the other candidates were MM. Laboulaye and Wallon.

— At the meeting of the Royal Society Mr. Hannay explained the process by which he had succeeded in making artificial diamonds, which had stood the tests applied to them. He had first highly heated, and then submitted to great pressure, hydro-carbons (gaseous compounds of hydrogen and carbon). These, in the presence of some nitrogenous compound, dissociated, the hydrogen being set free, and the carbon being deposited in the form of crystals. A quill full of these diamonds was submitted for inspection, the largest of which weighed not more than $\frac{1}{128}$ th part of a carat, and cost at least 5*l.* to produce.

27. The Admiralty decided upon the reintroduction of the breechloading principle, as applied to heavy guns, especially in the case of turret ships. The construction of 12-inch breechloading ordnance for ships of the "Colossus" class also agreed upon.

— Prince Hohenlohe transferred from the German Embassy at Paris to the direction of the Foreign Office at Berlin.

28. According to a decision arrived at by the Council of State, the French Crown diamonds, valued at forty millions of francs, are to be divided into three classes :—(1.) The heraldic, those having some artistic or historical interest; these will be deposited in the Louvre, and with them the famous "Regent" diamond, valued at eight millions of francs. (2.) The stones which possess a special mineralogical interest or value; these will be henceforward preserved in the Museum of Natural History. (3.) The stones which may be considered as mere jewellery, the value of which is estimated at about three millions of francs, ordered to be sold, and the proceeds applied to increasing the Museum funds.

The British India steamer "Vingorla," which left Bombay for Kurrachee, foundered about 70 miles from the former place. Captain Stewart, the commander, besides the chief officer and all the engineers and native passengers, about 190 in number, were lost. The remainder, about 95, succeeded with difficulty in getting into the boats, and were picked up on the following day. The sea was quite smooth; all went well with the ship, until half-past nine at night, when she was observed to be settling down by the head. On opening the main hatch, water was found to be within five feet of the main deck. Three

boats got away safely, but a fourth was upset, and all on board drowned. The cause of the leak was a mystery to all.

29. The junction of the galleries under the St. Gothard Pass effected, and communication established through a tunnel nine miles and a quarter in length, starting from Göschenen and ending at Airolo, both within Swiss territory. The difference of level of the two ends was found to be only two inches. The piercing was performed in less than eight years, whereas the Mont Cenis Tunnel, which is only seven and a half miles long, occupied fourteen years. At least a year's work will be necessary, however, before the railroad through the St. Gothard Tunnel can be available for public use.

— M. Onou, chief dragoman of the Russian Embassy at Constantinople, and Colonel Comaroff, military attaché, fired at whilst riding in the neighbourhood of that city, and the latter so seriously wounded that he subsequently died. The murderer, a Bosniac, was arrested.

MARCH.

1. The Hull District Bank stopped payment—a small concern with 87,841*l.* subscribed capital, of which 27,947*l.* was paid up. In May, 1879, it had taken over the Union Bank of Kingston-on-Hull.

— Under the auspices of the English Cart Horse Society, a fine collection of these animals brought together for the first time at the Agricultural Hall, Islington. The number of entries was 114, comprising no less than 76 thoroughbred stallions.

— The fee on letters posted after the ordinary hours (late letters) reduced from a penny to a halfpenny on all inland letters. The postage of all letters, newspapers, &c., to Australia, *via* Brindisi, reduced to the rates charged *via* Southampton.

2. In the House of Commons, Mr. Walpole presented a petition from Mr. Grissell, who had been declared guilty of breach of privilege last session, and had evaded arrest until a few hours of the prorogation, and who now submitted himself to the merciful consideration of the House. Sir Stafford Northcote moved, and Mr. W. E. Forster seconded, that Mr. Grissell's conduct could not be allowed to pass without notice, and that he should be reprimanded at the bar. Mr. C. B. Denison pointed out that if this were done the greater offender would receive the lesser punishment. Mr. Rylands moved to omit the latter part of the motion, which, being strongly supported on all sides, the Chancellor of the Exchequer accepted, and later in the evening the Sergeant-at-arms reported that he had taken Mr. Grissell into custody.

— The Sanitary Council of the province of Rome authorised the erection of a cremation establishment at Campo Verano.

— General de Vinoy dismissed from his post of Grand Chancellor of the Legion of Honour on charges of maladministration and undue favouritism of persons of Imperial politics.

3. General Loris Melikoff, the newly-appointed Dictator of Russia, shot at as he was leaving his carriage. The bullet passed through the General's

cloak. The would-be assassin was immediately arrested, and was at once tried by a court-martial and sentenced to be hanged on the following day. He proved to be a Jew named Mladetski, of the province of Minsk, who had been recently baptized into the Greek Church.

— Mr. Grissell committed to Newgate for breach of privilege in connection with the proceedings of the Select Committee on the Thames High Level Bridge thrown out last Session.

— In the Spanish Chamber of Deputies, the Minister of Marine proposed to fix the strength of the navy for 1880-1 at 13 frigates, 7 steam-vessels, 9 gunboats, 7 cruisers, and 9 transport and other vessels. The fleet would be manned by 5,000 sailors and 4,000 marine infantry; and by a decree published in the *Official Gazette* of Madrid, the strength of the Spanish army for the year 1880-81 is fixed at 90,000 men for Spain, 38,000 for Cuba, 10,000 for the Philippine Islands, and 3,395 for Porto Rico.

4. Lieutenant Schwatka, who had started in August 1878, from New York to discover further traces of the Franklin expedition, reached the northernmost Hudson's Bay station, whence he had started eleven months previously. On April 1, 1878, he had left the mainland and crossed on the ice to King William's Land—the north-west coast of which he explored minutely for five months, finding many valuable records, and clearing up many doubts. On November 1, he set out on his homeward journey, which occupied five months instead of one—but after incredible hardships the party reached the mainland again.

— The frontier village of Nauders, on Austrian territory, in the Upper Engadine, totally destroyed by a fire, which, commencing in the stables of the inn, quickly spread to the church, monastery, and eighty houses which made up the hamlet. About 150 families, comprising more than 1,000 persons, were rendered houseless, the total of their losses being estimated at nearly 25,000*l*.

5. A protest, signed by more than a hundred graduates and students of the Royal School of Mines, forwarded to the Lord President of the Council against the transfer of the technical portion of the teaching from the Jermyn Street Museum to the General Science School at South Kensington.

— A "scene" took place in the House of Commons, consequent on Mr. Hibbert putting a question regarding the stringent conditions laid down by the High Sheriff of Lancashire as to the recent execution in Kirkdale Gaol. Mr. Cross condemned the publication of descriptions of executions, and declared himself content to leave the matter in the hands of the sheriffs. Mr. Bright thereupon rose, but had hardly uttered a sentence when considerable confusion ensued, and it was only quelled on the Speaker explaining that it *was* in order to put a question arising out of the answer given by the Home Secretary. Mr. Bright then complained that the conduct of the High Sheriff had done much to make it impossible to continue private executions, and pointed out that the Prisons Act really transferred the power of permitting the public to attend executions from the High Sheriffs to the Home Secretary. Mr. Mitchell Henry spoke in the same strain, and ultimately Mr. Cross deprecated the discussion as contrary to the ruling of the Speaker on the previous evening. This brought up Lord Hartington, who protested that the Home Secretary sought to lecture Mr. Bright. Ultimately, Sir Stafford Northcote interfered, and contended that it *was*

irregular to raise such discussions whenever what were considered unsatisfactory replies had been given to questions. In the issue the subject was allowed to drop.

6. Leo Hartmann, the Russian Nihilist who had been arrested in Paris at the instigation of the Russian police, discharged from custody, but forced to quit France. It was asserted that he was one of those principally concerned in the plot to blow up the Czar's railway train near Moscow. The French Government, unconvinced as to his identity, declined to assent to his extradition. A letter from Archangel, published by a Russian newspaper, gives the following biography of Hartmann :—Nicolas Hartmann, a merchant of Archangel, had five sons, the eldest of whom committed suicide. Two of them, Albert and Nicolas, were by his second wife. Of the four brothers two became telegraph officials in South Russia, one entered the administration of Military Justice, and the fourth, Albert, was converted to the Greek Orthodox Church, and took the name of Leo. When the father died Hartmann was fifteen years old, and a student at the Gymnasium, which he had to leave owing to the reduced circumstances of his family. He went first to St. Petersburg as clerk in a house of business, but two or three years later we find him at Rostov on the Don. There he obtained a post in the local administration and kept the books at a bank. He was afterwards school-master at Taganrog, but had to give that up in consequence of a quarrel with the school inspector. Since 1875 or 1876 he ceased to get his regular passports from Archangel, and nothing more was heard of him. He is described as being thirty years of age, middle height, fair complexion, thin, large grey eyes, and thoroughly proficient in the German language.

— The 100-ton gun on board the Italian ironclad "Duilio" burst at Spezia during practice, after twenty-five shots had been fired. It was constructed on the Armstrong principle, as was the "Thunderer's" gun, which burst in a similar manner. Ten persons were injured, but only slightly.

— A party of fifteen officers of the Lanarkshire Brigade of Artillery Volunteers mustered at their battery at Irvine for gun practice at the 40-pounder breechloader under new drill instructions. Sergeant-Instructor Kirker, R.A., in putting a fuse into a shell, gave a stronger blow than usual with a mallet to drive it home. The result was ignition and immediate explosion. The sergeant-instructor had his left foot blown off, besides being severely wounded about the head, arms, and body. Lieut.-Colonel Watson had his left knee shattered, Major Mathieson received a severe concussion in the abdomen, while six other officers were wounded more or less severely. The sergeant-instructor died at midnight, having previously made a voluntary confession that he alone was responsible for the accident. It was found necessary to amputate Colonel Watson's leg above the knee, but the loss of blood so weakened him that he gradually sank, and died at seven o'clock the next morning.

7. Announcement made by the Austro-Hungarian Minister of the betrothal of the Archduke Rudolph, eldest son of the Emperor of Austria, to the Princess Stephanie Clothilde.

— Serious strikes and trade disputes in various parts of the United States, consequent on the advance in prices and demand for goods. The movement began with the New York piano-makers, who were followed by the cabinet-makers, carpenters, and marble-polishers, of that city ; the stevedores

and cotton-spinners and painters throughout the States joined in the strikes, until over 20,000 men were out of employment. The metal-workers and colliers of Pennsylvania, Virginia, and other States, struck for advances varying from 10 to 25 per cent. It was estimated that altogether more than 200,000 men were out of employ.

8. The Chancellor of the Exchequer (Sir Stafford Northcote) announced—without any previous knowledge of the intentions of the Government having transpired—that Parliament would be forthwith dissolved, and that the election would take place immediately after Easter.

— Consular reports from Salonica state that, with the exception of the towns in their immediate vicinity, the country is in the hands of the brigands. Thirteen distinct bands, numbering 150 men of all creeds, support themselves by levying blackmail or other similar means.

— The P. and O. steamship "Travancore," shortly before reaching Brindisi, went ashore in a thick fog at Castro Bight, south of Otranto. Passengers, mails, and crew saved; but the ship soon broke up.

9. Sir John Tilley, the Canadian Finance Minister, brought forward the budget in the Dominion House of Commons. The receipts for the past year had been 24,450,000 dols., and the expenditure 23,869,262 dols.; and he estimated the receipts for the next financial year at 25,517,000 dols., and the expenditure at 25,007,203 dols. The Government proposed to increase the issue of Dominion notes from 12 to 20 million dollars.

— The French emigrant ship, whose mysterious disappearance excited so much conjecture and suspicion last year, arrived off New Ireland. Baron de la Croix, on behalf of the Marquis de Rays, took possession of the territory, as also of the port of Likitiki and the Langhlan isles. The natives offered no opposition, taking flight to the mountains.

10. At 10.30 p.m. Captain Webb completed his experiment of remaining sixty hours continuously in the water, with but one rest of twenty minutes. At the close of the time he left the water (at the Westminster Aquarium) apparently none the worse for his lengthy exposure; the water was salt, and maintained at a temperature of from 75° to 80°.

— Accounts reached this country of the terrible state of destitution to which the Armenians, especially those in the neighbourhood of Van, had been reduced by famine. Numerous deaths from starvation, even in the towns, reported.

11. The German Emperor unveiled a statue at Berlin in memory of his mother, the Queen Louisa, wife of King William Frederick III. of Prussia. Queen Louisa's other two surviving children, Prince Charles of Prussia and the Dowager Duchess of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, were present.

12. The following numbers, published in Germany, represent approximately the present state of education among the chief European nations:—

	Population	Schools	Scholars	Cost per head of Population
Germany . .	42,000,000	60,000	6,000,000	2 11½
England . .	34,000,000	58,000	3,000,000	1 10½
Austro-Hungary .	37,000,000	30,000	3,000,000	1 8
France . .	37,000,000	71,000	4,700,000	1 6
Spain . .	17,000,000	20,000	1,600,000	1 4½
Italy . .	28,000,000	47,000	1,900,000	0 10
Russia . .	74,000,000	32,000	1,100,000	0 3½

13. The Guion steamship "Montana" went ashore near Holyhead in a dense fog. She was a vessel of 4,321 tons and 900 horse-power, built at Newcastle in 1873, and valued at 80,000*l*. She had left New York on March 2, and was approaching Liverpool when she stranded. The passengers, mails, and crew were saved.

— On his way back from St. Petersburg, H.R.H. the Duke of Edinburgh nearly met with an accident; his train coming into collision near Wirbalten. No damage was done, but the royal train was much delayed.

14. A Persian fanatic in the dress of a dervish stabbed the Grand Chereef of Mecca, guardian of the Holy Places, and the most sacred person in the Mussulman world, as he was entering the town of Djeddah. The Sultan, as Khalif, nominated the brother of the deceased to the vacant office, which can only be held by a descendant of the Prophet.

— Pneumatic clocks, indicating the exact time, erected in various parts of Paris by the municipality; the hands are moved at the intervals of a minute by six-horse-power machines.

15. According to German Imperial statistics for 1878, issued at Berlin, the estimated population of the Empire on the last day of that year was 44,200,000. The marriages numbered 340,000, the births 1,785,000, and the deaths 1,228,000; the stillborns being reckoned in both births and deaths. In France the number of births was ascertained to be 936,000, and the deaths 839,000; stillborn children counted on both sides.

— The sale of the Demidoff collection in the San Donato Palace, at Florence, commenced; and destined to extend, with slight intervals, to May 15.

16. Mr. Gladstone left London for Edinburgh, making speeches from the train at King's Cross, Grantham, Newcastle, and Berwick; whilst at York he addressed an immense concourse of people outside the station hotel. On arriving in Edinburgh he was received by an enthusiastic crowd, which lined much of the road to Dalmeney House, where he took up his residence as the guest of Lord Rosebery.

— At Prague, in the presence of the Governor of Bohemia, the Cardinal von Schwarzenberg and others solemnly disinterred the remains of St. Adalbert, the Benedictine monk and Bishop of Prague, who was killed in the 10th century while endeavouring to convert the Polish Prussians. The coffin, which bore the date of 1341, was transferred to the cathedral and placed in the reliquary.

17. Père Didon, the Dominican priest who had been preaching a Lenten course of sermons at the church of La Trinité, at Paris, on marriage and divorce, and the conflict of religion and science, summoned to Rome by the General of his Order.

18. The council of magistrates of the city of Berlin had under consideration recently a proposal, submitted by the firm of Siemens and Halske, for the construction of an electric railway across a portion of the capital. The line would start from the Belle Alliance Place, and run through Friedrich and Chaussee Streets on the Wilhelm Platz. There are to be two lines of rails, one for the up and the other for the down journey. The viaduct is to be placed on iron pillars 14 ft. 9 in. high, and nearly 33 ft. apart. These pillars would be placed along the edge of the footpath, so as to cause the least

possible interference with the ordinary traffic. The carriages are to be narrow and short, containing ten sitting-places and four standing-places. The electro-dynamic machine which will propel the carriages will be placed under the floor of the carriage between the wheels, and a steam-engine of 60-horse power, employed in the production of the electricity, will be placed at the terminus. The stoppages would be very few, and the rate of speed, it is expected, about 20 miles an hour. The chief object of the undertaking is to convey persons quickly across the city, and especially to facilitate access to the city lines of railway. The chief objection raised is that the carriages would pass along at the level of the first floor of the houses in the streets which it traversed, and it is feared that this would lead to a depreciation in the value of property. The magistrates appointed a special commission of engineers and architects to examine and report upon the proposal.

— A Parliamentary paper issued showing that in 1879 the House of Commons sat 975 hours before midnight, and 170 hours after midnight : whilst in the Session of 1878 the House sat 1,047 hours before midnight, and 163 after midnight.

— The Crown Prince of Prussia communicated to the members of the Imperial family the betrothal of his eldest son, Prince William, to the Princess Victoria of Augustenberg.

19. The terms of the proposed purchase of the eight London Water Companies are thus described by the Government Arbitrator, Mr. E. J. Smith, in a letter to the *Times* :—"The price to be paid for the purchase is 29 millions sterling on July 1, 1880. The payment takes the form of 22 millions of 3½ per cent. stock taken at that time by the water companies and of seven millions taken by them, with interest over a period of 13 years, because there is no money wherewith to pay at once. The seven millions, therefore, becomes, with the interest, 9,300,000*l.* of 3½ per cent. stock in the course of the 13 years. In the event of the agreement not being carried out, the cost of the purchase of these undertakings, under compulsory powers, after next year's Session might possibly be proved at a much higher rate—several millions more than 29 ; and that cost would increase at the rate of two millions a year. The terms of the purchases from each company necessarily vary according to the special circumstances of each case. Measured by the market value of the shares in August last, they range from slightly more than that market value up to nearly thrice that market value. One company has much more than doubled its divisible income in two years, and the houses in part of its district double their number in less than ten years. About 20,000 houses are now added yearly to the number of houses within the metropolitan water area ; but they are necessarily added upon land not built upon previously. The suburban water companies, therefore, increase their divisible incomes from new houses three, four, or five times as fast as water companies whose districts have been for the most part covered with houses long since ; faster, for instance, than Liverpool, Manchester, or Birmingham water companies, whose nucleus has long been built over, and whose marginal fringe only can be covered. Other material inequalities exist. In few cases have the water companies charged their full Parliamentary rates for water. Even in that case where the divisible income of the company has much more than doubled in two years, it is stated that the full Parliamentary rate is not reached. Two companies are under

no restriction whatever as to their rate of dividend. The rest can divide 10 per cent. as interest, and as much more as they can make on the ground of repayment of back dividends. With respect to the future, the first year's increment of 35,000*l.* a year is at the disposal of the Water Trust, as is also 25,000*l.* a year immediately saved in management. These two items provide 60,000*l.* a year for the expenditure of the Trust in its first year, and in the second year its disposable revenue will rise to 170,000*l.* to 180,000*l.* a year, and will from that time constantly increase. With respect to the present, all expenditure on the part of the water companies is already under control and has relation to the public interests and not to the private interests of the shareholders. About a million may be saved this year by this control."

— In the House of Commons, this being the last sitting before the prorogation and dissolution, Sir George Bowyer called notice to the use by the Usher of the Black Rod of the expression "required the attention of the Speaker and House," instead of "desired." The Speaker replied that although the ordinary expression was "desired," he was not prepared to say that it was a wrong one.

— Grand National Steeple Chase at Liverpool won by two lengths by Mr. P. Ducrot's *Empress*, 5 yrs., 10 st. 7 lbs., ridden by Mr. T. Beazley. There were fourteen starters, of which Lord Aylesford's *Regal* was the favourite, but fell at the second fence. Mr. G. Moore's horse *The Liberator*, aged, 12 st. 7 lb., ridden by himself, was second. Time, 10 min. 29 sec., distance 4½ miles.

20. The Oxford and Cambridge boat race fixed for 7.45 a.m. had to be postponed on account of the dense fog which covered London and the suburbs until long after the appointed hour. Much pressure had been brought to bear on the presidents of the two clubs to row the race upon the ebb tide, about two hours later, but without effect.

— The German Chancellor caused the announcement to be made that H.R.H. Duke Theodore of Bavaria, who previously had taken the university degree of doctor of medicine, had received a certificate enabling him to practise as a surgeon.

— A six days' bicycle contest terminated about 10 p.m. at the Agricultural Hall, Islington. There were nine competitors, including two Frenchmen. The hours of riding were from 6 a.m. to 12 p.m. and the track was boarded. On Wednesday at midnight C. Terront (of Paris), the leader, had completed over 746 miles. At the conclusion C. Terront was declared the winner, having covered 1272 miles. The only others who went through the week were Edlin, 1154 miles; Cann, 1076; Homey, 1038; Shakespeare, 966; Andrews, 712.

21. Mr. Parnell arrived in Queenstown, from the United States, and was received by deputations from various Irish bodies. The address of the Land League concluded by expressing a hope that Mr. Parnell had fled across the water like another Perseus to save the Andromeda of nations from the political monster now threatening her with national destruction.

22. The University boat race, postponed from Saturday, rowed over the usual course from Putney to Mortlake. On their first arrival at Putney for training, the Cambridge crew had been the favourites, but in consequence of certain changes in the boats Oxford was most in favour at the start. Oxford won the toss, and chose the Middlesex side, and started with thirty-eight strokes to the minute. Cambridge endeavoured to force the pace with

forty strokes, drawing slightly ahead. At Bishop's Creek the Cambridge stroke dropped to thirty-eight, but they still kept and added to their advantage, partly, no doubt, through the fault of the Oxford coxswain, who took his boat too near the shore, and thus lost the advantage of the tide. So the race continued as far as the Soap Works, Cambridge gaining all the way until they were more than half-a-length ahead. Here the Oxford crew got flurried, and for two or three strokes lost all time. This gave Cambridge a longer lead, and as the boats passed under Hammersmith-bridge Cambridge was all but clear of the other. If, then, the old saying was to be believed, that the race was always decided by Hammersmith-bridge, Cambridge should prove the winner. But Oxford were not going to let them win so easily, and at this point they quickened slightly, and getting well together began at once to decrease the distance between them. This, indeed, was the turning-point of the race. It soon became clear that the best of the Cambridge rowing was over. They became unsteady as they saw the other boat coming up, and hurried forward, getting before the stroke, and sliding unevenly. Still, they made a hard fight of it; and it was not until opposite Chiswick Eyot that the Oxford boat came level with them. Then indeed the race was over. The Oxford crew drew more and more ahead, and though the Cambridge men had got back into good time and were rowing their best, as in the first part of the course, it was too late. They gradually got into the wash of the Oxford boat, and by the time Barnes-bridge was reached the race had become a procession. Eventually Oxford won by two lengths and three-quarters, the time being 21min. 23sec., good time considering the state of the tide. The names and weights of the crews were as follows:—

OXFORD.		st. lb.	CAMBRIDGE.		st. lb.
R. H. T. Poole, Brasenose	(bow)	11 6	E. H. Prest, Jesus	(bow)	10 12
2. D. E. Brown, Hertford		12 6	2. H. Sandford, Lady Marg.		11 5½
3. F. M. Hargreaves, Keble		12 2	3. W. Barton, Lady Margaret		11 3½
4. H. B. Southwell, Pemb.		13 0	4. W. M. Warlow, Queens'		12 0
5. R. A. Kindersley, Exeter		12 8	5. C. N. Armytage, Jesus		12 2½
6. G. D. Rowe, Univ. (Pres.)		12 3	6. R. D. Davis, First Trinity		12 8½
7. F. H. J. Wharton, Magd.		11 11	7. R. D. Prior, Queens'		11 13
L. R. West, Ch. Ch. (str.)		11 1	W. W. Baillie, Jesus (str.)		11 2½
C. S. W. Hunt, Corp. (cox.)		7 5	B. S. Clarke, L. Marg. (cox.)		6 12

This makes the nineteenth race which Oxford have won, while Cambridge have only won seventeen, so that Oxford are now two to the good.

23. Judgment delivered in the House of Lords in the case of *Julius v. the Bishop of Oxford*. The facts of the case were that a parishioner made complaint to the bishop of the diocese of certain Ritualistic practices carried on at Clewer by the rector, Rev. T. T. Carter. The bishop declined to interfere, and in January 1879 Dr. Julius applied to the Court of Queen's Bench for a *mandamus* to compel the bishop to do as required. The bishop defended his own case, but lost it. The Court of Appeal unanimously reversed the judgment of the Court of Queen's Bench, holding that the words of the 3rd Section of the Church Discipline Act, "it shall be lawful," were merely permissive. The Lord Chancellor (Cairns) delivered the judgment, in which he was supported by Lords Penzance, Selborne, and Blackburn.

— The negotiations between Consul Blunt and Nico, the brigand leader, resulted in the liberation of Colonel Synge, after a detention of some weeks.

Among the brigand Nico's conditions was the liberation from prison of three of his relations.

— A new drama, entitled "Les Noces d'Attila," by M. Henri de Bornier, author of "La Fille de Roland," produced in Paris at the Odéon Theatre, and received with great applause.

24. The Rev. Canon Carter resigned the vicarage of Clewer, which he had held since 1844. In a letter addressed to the Bishop of Oxford, whilst admitting the Bishop's claim to interfere in matters affecting Church services, he expressed his inability to accept any decision based on the recent Privy Council judgments. Although subsequently urged to withdraw his resignation, Mr. Carter adhered to his intention, retaining the Wardenship of the Clewer House of Mercy.

— Parliament prorogued by Royal Commission. An hour later the proclamation dissolving it was issued—the writs being sent off at once, and returnable on the 29th April. This Parliament had sat six years and one month, and during its course the changes in the Upper House were 137—viz., 108 by death, 6 by promotion from a lower to a higher grade, and 23 by fresh creation. In the House of Commons 149 changes had occurred—viz., 60 by death and the rest by retirement or promotion.

— Mr. Charles E. Grissell, who had been committed to Newgate for breach of privilege, released by the dissolution of Parliament.

— The United States ship "Constellation" sailed for the west coast of Ireland with 2,300 barrels of flour, seed potatoes, and oatmeal for the relief of the distress in that country.

25. The Queen and Princess Beatrice left Windsor for Portsmouth, Cherbourg, *en route* to Baden-Baden; and the ex-Empress Eugénie embarked at Southampton for the Cape of Good Hope to visit the spot where her son fell.

— The editor of the Munich *Landbote* condemned to six months' imprisonment in a fortress for insulting the King of Bavaria by insinuating that the reason of the delay in the promulgation of a Tax bill, was that he had refused to sign any public documents.

— The damage done by the severe frosts of January and February to the trees, shrubs, and plants in the public gardens and parks of Paris estimated at 40,000*l*. In the Champs Elysées 3,000 trees and shrubs were killed; in the Bois de Boulogne 50,000 evergreens, 20,000 conifers, and 30,000 deciduous trees had to be replaced.

26. According to a return presented to the German Parliament, 33,237 emigrants (of whom two thirds were males) left Germany for foreign countries. This was the highest total since 1874, when the total was 45,112. By far the largest number go to the United States and Canada, after which come Australia and Brazil.

— The Metropolitan Board of Works renewed for another year the contract with the French Société Générale d'Electricité for lighting the Thames Embankment with the Jablochkoff electric light. The number of lights employed between Blackfriars and Westminster Bridge is 50, and the contract price for the year was fixed at 2*d*. per light per hour. The original contract for 20 lights made in October 1878 had been at the rate of 6*d*. per hour; when the number of the lamps was increased to 40 the price was

reduced to 5*d.* per light per hour ; a further reduction to 3*d.* was made when the number was increased to 50.

The Jablochkoff electric light reported at this time to be in use at the palace of King Thebaw (of Burmah) at Mandalay ; of Shah Nadeer ed Deen (of Persia) at Teheran ; of Prince Agaklan at Bombay ; of Dom Luis (of Portugal) at Caseneo ; of ex-Queen Isabella, at Paris ; and in various streets and buildings of Paris and other continental cities.

27. During the week a series of performances given at the Garrick Theatre, Leman-street, Whitechapel, in the Jüdisch-Deutsch dialect by immigrants from Russia settled in London. The language is spoken by some millions of people in Poland, the Baltic provinces, Southern Russia and Roumania. The basis of the dialect is an old form of German largely mixed with Hebrew and Russian words, and even traces of English—traceable, it is supposed, to the immigration of Jews into the Baltic provinces on their expulsion from England in the time of Edward I. Dramatic performances on the feast of Esther, at marriages, and on other occasions, are given in the language, and a theatre has been recently established at Odessa for the Jüdisch-Deutsch dramas.

— The following letter from Baroness Burdett-Coutts to Mr. S. Morley appeared :—"Sir,—I have received a circular, signed by yourself as Chairman from the Central Committee-rooms, asking me to contribute towards the expenses of Mr. Herbert Gladstone's candidature for Middlesex. I am doubtful whether, in my position, such a step would at any time commend itself to me. But I do not feel disposed to join in this movement, because it seems to me that under the present circumstances of the world the country needs, above all things, a strong Government, and that, since the Dissolution of Parliament in 1874 by Mr. Gladstone, the Liberal Opposition has been too disorganised to offer such a Government to the country. I am, Sir, yours faithfully, (Signed) BURDETT-COUTTS. Stratton-street, March 27, 1880."

— The first number of the new semi-official Russian journal *Bereg* appeared under the editorship of Professor Tsitovitch. One of its articles was devoted to proving that Russian Liberalism and Conservatism are distinguished not so much by political aspirations as by the variance of their different points of view ; the other advocated the maintenance of the German alliance.

28. The *Bereg* stated that of all the propagandists of Nihilism discovered between 1873 and 1878—at which latter date the policy of assassination was adopted—80 per cent. were the sons of nobles, merchants, officers, &c., and only 20 per cent. workmen and smugglers. Of the educated, one-third were from the higher schools, and mostly students of science. Of the women discovered 39 per cent. were from gymnasiums, 25 per cent. from the mid-wifery classes, and 17 per cent. medical students.

29. The Easter Monday Volunteer Review on the Brighton Downs, which had been abandoned for some time, resumed ; 20,328 volunteers, 1,000 regulars, and 30 guns taking part in it. In a general order the Commander-in-Chief expressed his satisfaction at the soldier-like bearing and discipline of the men—at their steadiness and good conduct. The following is a list of the places where the Easter Monday reviews have been held in former years, with the numbers of volunteers present :—

Year	Place	Numbers present	Guns
1861	Brighton	7,000	0
1862	Brighton	17,000	16
1863	Brighton	15,000	30
1864	Farley-heath (Guildford)	Not stated	
1865	Brighton	20,000	46
1866	Brighton	19,000	0
1867	Dover	23,000	0
1868	Portsmouth	23,000	0
1869	Dover	24,000	0
1870	Brighton	25,500	0
1871	Brighton	26,000	52
1872	Brighton	22,000	0
1876	Tring	10,000	0
1877	Dunstable	12,000	0

— Mr. Parnell addressed the following letter to Mr. Daniel O'Connell Martin, an elector of Dundalk: "Dublin, March 29. Sir,—I am much surprised to hear from your letter of yesterday that Mr. Callan has publicly stated that I have expressed approval of his Parliamentary career, and that, if necessary, I would go down to support him. In reply to your inquiry, as an elector, respecting the truth of these statements, I feel compelled to give them a most unqualified contradiction. So far from approving of the career of Mr. Callan, I am of opinion that his connection with the Irish party has been to it a source of weakness, and I could not regard his re-election in any other light than a political discredit to the country. I therefore trust that the electors of Dundalk will do their utmost to prevent his return. Yours truly, CHARLES S. PARNELL."

30. The decrees suppressing the Jesuit and other non-authorized congregations throughout France appeared in the Official Journal.

— In the *Newcastle Journal* a long letter appeared from Earl Grey addressed to Mr. G. A. Grey, of Milfield, stating the grounds on which he dissented from and disapproved of the opposition to the return of the sitting Conservative members, Lord Percy and Sir M. W. Ridley. Lord Grey held that although he thought the foreign policy of the Government unwise and mischievous, its colonial affairs mismanaged, and its measures deficient in energy, it was not desirable that the Administration should be overthrown. He further announced his attachment to the old Whig creed, which to him it seemed that Mr. Gladstone and his most active followers had utterly repudiated.

— The Tunisian railway to the Algerian frontier completed, and handed over by the contractors to the company.

31. The confirmation of the Princesses Victoria and Elizabeth, daughters of the Grand Duke of Hesse and the late Princess Alice of Great Britain, took place in the castle chapel at Darmstadt, in the presence of Queen Victoria, the Prince and Princess of Wales, the Crown Prince of Germany, and other members of the royal families of England, Baden, Hesse, &c.

— The Inter-University single-handed racket match won by Hon. Ivo Bligh, making nine victories for Cambridge against fourteen scored by Oxford since 1858.

— According to a Board of Trade return, the accidents reported show that in the first three months of the year 272 persons had been killed and 962 injured on the railways of the United Kingdom. Of these 6 were killed,

and 202 injured by accidents to trains or permanent way; and 24 were killed and 161 injured by accidents from other causes; level crossings caused 18 deaths, and trespassing on the lines (including suicides), 87. The great majority of accidents happened to railway servants, of whom 128 were killed and 533 injured in the quarter.

APRIL.

1. The Préfet of the Seine, acting under the injunctions of the Paris Municipal Council, "laicised" thirty-two communal schools within the capital, by expelling the Frères and Sœurs who held them, and handed over the premises to other teachers. In numerous cases the religious corporations at once reopened free schools, to which their former scholars transferred themselves.

— Baumgartner, the inventor of the navigable balloon, having three cars attached, each with ten or twelve wings, set in motion by a crank, attempted an ascent from Leipzig. On the rope being cut, the balloon rose very slowly, skimming the housetops, whereupon the two assistants jumped out in alarm. The balloon then shot up to a great height, burst and fell, but Baumgartner was not severely hurt.

— According to a War Office circular, promulgated by order of the Secretary of State, the actual condition of the British army of all ranks, on March 31, was as follows:—

	British Estab.	Indian Estab.	Total	Horses
Household Cavalry	1,302	—	1,302	825
Cavalry of the Line	11,653	4,320	15,973	10,883
Royal Artillery	23,160	12,081	35,241	12,164
Royal Engineers	5,223	428	5,651	322
Foot Guards	5,950	—	5,950	—
Infantry of the Line	72,826	45,795	118,621	—
West India Regiments	1,838	—	1,838	—
Royal Malta Fencible Artillery . .	369	—	369	—
Gun Lascars	278	—	278	—
Army Service Corps	3,030	—	3,030	1,100
Army Hospital Corps	1,952	—	1,952	—
	127,581	62,624	190,205	25,294

2. A terrible fire nearly destroyed Hull, a suburb of Ottawa, and connected with the Canadian capital by a bridge over the St. Lawrence. Hull is the centre of the lumber trade of Central Canada, and although the great lumber mills were saved, enormous stores of timber, besides hundreds of dwelling-houses, were destroyed, to the value of two or three millions of dollars.

3. The Archbishop of Canterbury announced his approval of Rev. George Evans Moule as Missionary Bishop in China, in succession to the late Bishop Russell. Bishop Moule had for many years been connected with missionary work in China, the scene of his labours being chiefly in the province of Ningpo.

— M. Lépinay, to whom the question of a canal connecting the Bay of Biscay and the Mediterranean had been referred, issued his report. He proposed that the canal should start from Bordeaux, and after a course of 406 kilometres (254 miles), comprising 62 locks, should emerge at the ancient port of Narbonne. From sea to sea the voyage would occupy fifty-four hours. He estimated the cost at about 22,000,000*l.*, and that the canal would be available for ships 400 feet in length.

5. The report of the Royal Commissioners on the City Parochial Charities issued. According to it the existing system of administration is not calculated to afford full benefits to those for whom the charities were originally founded; a satisfactory rearrangement of these charities under the existing system is practically impossible; a commission with further powers is recommended, and the appointment of a Board for the management of the funds. The approximate income of the charities is returned at 104,904*l.*, of which no less than 81,000*l.* is beyond even the nominal control of the Charity Commissioners.

6. M. Ernest Rénan, the lecturer chosen this year by the Hibbert Trustees, delivered the first of three discourses "On the Influence of Rome on Christianity," at St. George's Hall. The lectures were delivered in French, and so great was the demand for tickets that each lecture was delivered twice.

— At West Point Academy, the military training school for the United States army, a coloured cadet named Whitaker was found in his bed apparently insensible, his hands and feet tied—the latter to the bed-posts—his ears cut and his hair cropped. His story was that in the night three masked men had entered his room and thus treated him. A searching inquiry was instituted, which resulted in the conviction of Whitaker himself as the author of the plot against himself.

— Prince Bismarck, without warning, addressed a letter to the Emperor requesting to be allowed to resign the German Chancellorship, ostensibly on the ground of ill-health, but in reality because the New Stamp Act, approved by Prussia, Bavaria, and Saxony, had been outvoted in the Federal Council by a combination of the smaller States headed by Wurtemberg. The Emperor declined to accept the Chancellor's resignation.

7. Professor Prosdocimi, of the Este Museum, announced the discovery, on the slopes of the hill overlooking the town, of a prehistoric cemetery containing eighty-two tombs. Of these, forty-four had been violated, apparently during the Roman period. The remainder were untouched, and contained their original pottery and bronzes in admirable preservation and of the highest interest.

— The Right Worshipful and Venerable Arthur Percival Purey-Cust, late Archdeacon of Buckingham, admitted, installed, and inducted to the office of Dean of York; and "invested with all and singular the rights, members, and appurtenances by the delivery of book and bread."

8. The Père Didon, the Dominican preacher whose sermons in Paris on divorce, science, and religion had caused him to be called to Rome, ordered by the General of the Order to take up his residence in the small monastery of Corbaro, in Corsica, inhabited by five or six Italian monks.

— A report issued from the Education Department for the kingdom of Hungary showing that during the years 1878 and 1879 there were 15,675 public elementary schools in the 12,867 communes in the kingdom, being at the rate of one school for every 866 inhabitants; 22 per cent. of the children attended no schools. There were 68 establishments for training teachers for the schools; 15 of them for female teachers. The number of gymnasias under the inspection of the State was 68, with 33,000 pupils, 29 of which are under lay management. There were also 27 *Realschulen*, with 5,740 pupils. The University at Buda-Pesth has 2,757 students, and another at Klausenburg (Transylvania) has 447, and a polytechnic school at Buda-Pesth 516 pupils; there are also 13 "academies" for teaching law, but apparently without much vitality.

— Sir John Tilley, the Canadian Finance Minister, announced to the House of Commons at Ottawa that the Dominion Government proposed to spend 20,000,000 dols. during the next two years, and 5,000,000 yearly afterwards, in the construction of the Pacific Railway. The total cost from Lake Superior to the Pacific was estimated at 60,000,000 dols.

9. A return of the property held by the City of Paris for public uses gives a total of 760 buildings, valued at 42,080,000*l.* In this are comprised the Hotel de Ville (valued at 1,100,000*l.*), 20 official residences of the mayors of the several arrondissements, 76 churches, synagogues, and Protestant temples—amongst which St. Roch figures for 660,000*l.*, St. Germain de l'Auxerrois for 480,000*l.*, the Madeleine for 460,000*l.*—the chief educational establishments, lycées, secondary and primary schools, barracks, public offices, markets and bonded warehouses. To these are also to be added the monuments, fountains, squares, &c.

10. The Colonial report issued by the Dutch Government on the state of the Dutch Indian army returns its strength at 1,466 officers, 36,640 non-commissioned officers and men, with 1,281 horses. Of the officers, only two are natives, and of the men 70 per cent. are foreigners, principally Germans.

— The discontented Hanoverian Catholics settled in Bosnia, between Berbir and Banjalouka, and named their colony "Windthorst," after the leader of the centre party in the Prussian and German Parliaments.

— By a clause introduced into the Code issued by the Education Department, instruction in singing from notes becomes obligational in all elementary schools in England and Wales.

12. At Silvertown, near North Woolwich, a still for the manufacture of creosote exploded, killing eleven persons and wounding many more.

— Canon Ryle, a distinguished member of the Low Church party, appointed to be first Bishop of the newly-constructed see of Liverpool, that see having been fully endowed. Canon Ryle had been nominated by Lord Beaconsfield to be Dean of Salisbury, but was never installed.

13. By statistics relating to the years 1872 to 1879, it appears that, while the total income of the population in Prussia has not diminished, the large and very large incomes have fallen off, and medium incomes have increased. Dividing all incomes into six classes, it is estimated that, in 1879, the persons with scanty incomes, up to 525 marks, numbered 3,611,227 (or 40·62 per cent.); those with small incomes, 525 to 2,000 marks, 4,811,121 (or 54·12 per cent.); those with moderate incomes, 2,000 to 6,000 marks, 397,053 (or 4·47 per cent.);

those with middle-class incomes, 6,000 to 20,000 marks, 62,644 (or 0·70 per cent.); those with large incomes, 20,000 to 100,000 marks, 7,711; those with very large incomes, over 100,000 marks, 501 (the two latter 0·09 per cent.). The total amounts of income for these classes severally are, stated roughly, 1,444 million marks, 4,394 millions, 1,269 millions, 598 millions, 278 millions, and 101 millions.

— A Parliamentary return issued showing that in the course of the previous year there occurred in London 80 deaths found by coroners' inquests to have resulted from starvation. Of these, 48 occurred in the Central Division, 28 in the Eastern, 1 in the Western, 2 in Westminster, and 1 in Greenwich.

14. Otero, who had attempted to assassinate the King of Spain—having previously signed his own death-warrant—executed outside the walls of Madrid. It was alleged that, before his execution, Otero confessed that he was ordered by a secret society to commit the crime for which he suffered.

— A convict named Takacs, aged 23, was hanged at Raab for the murder of two women. After the execution the body, having been cut down, and life having been declared to be extinct, was made the subject of galvanic experiments. The body speedily showed signs of life, and after a few hours Takacs recovered complete consciousness. Soon afterwards, however, he became delirious and attacked his keepers, and died the following day.

— The trial of sixteen Nihilists by court martial closed after lasting a week. Amongst the accused were five Jews and one Jewess; one lady was the daughter of a general, and most of the others had the rank of gentleman. The eldest was 30 years of age, and nine were under 21. Two only were acquitted, the others being condemned to various terms of imprisonment.

15. On the eve of the withdrawal of the Duke of Marlborough from the Irish Viceroyalty, the Duchess made a final statement with regard to the Famine Relief Fund inaugurated by her. The total amount received had been 112,484*l.*, out of which 33,295*l.* had been expended for potatoes and other seeds, 60,882*l.* in other forms of relief (food, clothing, &c.). The Dublin Mansion House Committee during the period of its existence had received 143,000*l.*, of which 110,000*l.* had been expended in various ways.

16. Signor Cavallotti, a well-known Italian poet and Republican deputy, who had gone to Trieste to superintend there the production of his drama, "*La Sposa di Menocle*," expelled from the Austrian territory by the Trieste police, who, however, were disavowed by the Vienna authorities.

— The election of sixteen representative peers for Scotland took place in the picture gallery of Holyrood Palace. Places were provided for forty peers, but not more than twenty-five were present. The peers arrived at 11 a.m. headed by the Earl of Glasgow, in his robes as Lord Clerk Register, who at once took the president's chair. After an appeal to the Lord Provost to see that peace was preserved the calling of the roll began. The peers being called in order of precedence, the Earl of Sutherland protested against the Earl of Craufurd's name being called before his own, or anyone else being regarded as premier earl of Scotland. When the name of the Earl of Mar was called, the Earl of Mar and Kellie responded, but the friends of Mr. Goodeve-Erskine, who claims an earldom of Mar of older creation, at once intervened with a protest. After a long discussion the Lord Clerk Register intimated he would receive the vote of the Earl of Kellie as Earl of Mar. Another

misunderstanding was near arising about the right of the Earl of Eglintoun. Then followed a fiery speech by the Marquis of Queensberry, who had published recently a letter recanting his Christianity. Each peer then wrote down the name of the sixteen peers for whom he voted. At the close of the poll it was found that the sixteen peers elected were the sixteen nominated by the Duke of Buccleuch. Of these fourteen were re-elected, whilst Lord Borthwick took the place of Lord Sinclair retired, and the Earl of Leven and Melville that of the Marquis of Queensbury, who only received three votes.

17. In Paris, at a meeting of the French Scientific Society, M. de Lesseps gave an account of his journey to Panama. He said that the only appreciable difficulty in the way of an inter-oceanic canal was a hill about 100 feet high, separating the Rio Chaper Valley from the Rio Grande. He considered the country healthy, and the pecuniary success of the undertaking undoubted.

18. A severe tornado passed down the Mississippi Valley, doing vast damage in Missouri, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Iowa. A considerable township named Marshfield practically disappeared. When the relief trains from Springfield arrived only fourteen houses were left standing, and all these were damaged. Trees three feet in diameter were twisted off and snapped in pieces. One hundred and fifty lives were lost, and many more were injured by the fall of the houses and fires which broke out subsequently.

— Verdi's new composition, "Pater Noster," the words taken from Dante, performed at La Scala, Milan, with great success, Verdi himself conducting.

19. M. Choisy and his caravan returned to Algiers, having completed their preliminary surveys for the proposed Sahara railway. They carefully visited the country between Oued Rin and El Colcah, and reached the edge of the sand hills which lie at the entrance to the Insalah route. They were altogether unmolested, and returned very hopeful as to the possibility of the new line of railroad.

— Silver medallion of the Royal Humane Society awarded to M. François Tardivel, an officer of the French gunboat *La Mouette*, for his gallant rescue of two women at Lowestoft. M. Tardivel, it subsequently transpired, had previously saved twenty-two lives.

20. An International Fishery Exhibition opened at Berlin, illustrating the progress of art and science in connection with the breeding, capture, preparation, and preservation of fish in seas and rivers. Nearly all countries except France were represented.

21. The annual report of the Committee of Council on Education for England and Wales issued. The Government grants to elementary day schools rose in the year from 1,820,661*l.* to 1,981,720*l.*, or from 15*s.* 1½*d.* to 15*s.* 3½*d.* per scholar in average attendance; while the grant for the current financial year is estimated at 15*s.* 8*d.* per head. There were in 1879, 3,710,883 names of day scholars on the registers of inspected day schools. Cookery is taught in 223 schools, and in 848 schools savings-banks have been established. The average salary of a certificated master, which in 1870 was 95*l.* 12*s.* 9*d.*, is now 120*l.* 11*s.* 9*d.*; that of a schoolmistress was 57*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.* in 1870, and is now 72*l.* 3*s.* 2*d.* Moreover, 5,817 masters and 5,278 mistresses are provided with residences free of rent. Grants for the maintenance of schools were paid to 1,356 boards in England, and to 220 boards in Wales, being an increase of 217 in England, and 24 in Wales, over the number to

which grants were paid in 1877-8; the sum paid being 507,119*l.* as against 419,053*l.* in 1877-8.

— The Great Metropolitan Stakes at Epsom won by a length by the favourite, Lord Bradford's Chippendale, by Rococo—Adversity, 4 years, 8 st. 10 lb. (J. Osborne). Mr. L. de Rothschild's Fashion, 3 years, 6 st. 2 lb. was second. Ten started. Time, 4 min. 27 sec.; distance, 2½ miles.

22. The Marquis of Hartington, in obedience to a command from the Queen, arrived at Windsor Castle in the afternoon, Lord Beaconsfield having left in the morning, and remained for nearly two hours.

— The City and Suburban Handicap at Epsom won by a short head by the second favourite, Lord Hastings's Master Kildare, by Lord Ronald—Silk, 5 years, 9 st. 2 lb. (Archer). Mr. Naylor's Leoville was second; the favourite, Mr. Gretton's Westbourne, nowhere. Twenty-one started. A mile and quarter. Time, 2 min. 14 sec.

23. The Union steamship "American" foundered near the Equator, after breaking her main shaft. Although only seven hours elapsed between the accident and the ship going down, all the passengers, crew, and mails were safely transferred to the eight boats of the ship. Three of these were picked up on the evening of the second day by the steamship "Congo," and landed at Madeira. The remaining five boats made for Cape Palmas, about 250 miles distant. Of these, three fell in with an American barque, and their passengers were afterwards transferred to an English steamer, which landed them on the coast of Africa, at a point where they were taken on board by another steamer, the "Senegal." Just off the Grand Canary the "Senegal" struck on a sunken rock, and they were again shipwrecked, but were ultimately brought safely to Madeira. The other two boats, after somewhat longer exposure, were ultimately picked up also, and finally all the crew and passengers of the "American" reached land in safety, with the exception of Mr. J. Paterson, one of the foremost members of the Cape Colony Parliament.

— Lord Hartington and Lord Granville went down to Windsor at 11 a.m., and after an audience lasting an hour they returned to London, and at once drove to Mr. Gladstone's house in Harley-street, where they arrived at 3.30 p.m. At five o'clock Mr. Gladstone went down to Windsor, and had an interview with the Queen, kissed hands on his appointment as First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, and returned to town about nine o'clock.

— Mr. Charles B. Birch, sculptor, elected an Associate of the Royal Academy, and Mr. Frederick Stacpoole an Associate Engraver.

24. The marriage of the Princess Frederica, eldest daughter of the late King of Hanover, and sister of the present Duke of Cumberland, to Baron von Pawell-Rammingen, formerly equerry to her father, was celebrated in the private chapel at Windsor Castle, in the presence of the Queen, and certain members of the Royal Family.

— The following account of the reconciliation between Mr. Gladstone and the Austro-Hungarian Ambassador stated by the *Times* to be correct:—
"Two or three days before Mr. Gladstone became Premier, Count Karolyi, referring to his recent remarks on Austria, complained of the embarrassing situation in which he (Count Karolyi) would be placed on his first meeting with Mr. Gladstone. On April 23 the gentleman to whom this complaint

was addressed repeated it to Mr. Gladstone, who expressed his deep regret that the remarks in question should have given pain, and authorised the communication of that regret to his Excellency. The day following Count Karolyi acknowledged the communication by a letter to the same gentleman in which he declared his readiness to take the first opportunity of cordially congratulating Mr. Gladstone on his accession to office."

— Escorted by about two hundred steamers, the "Vega," having on board Professor Nordenskjöld and his companions, reached Stockholm. The city was splendidly illuminated, and the adjacent coasts were lit up for many miles. The party on landing were met by the municipal authorities, and immediately proceeded to the royal castle, where they were welcomed by the king. The dignity of baron was subsequently conferred on Professor Nordenskjöld, and Captain Palander and Mr. Oscar Dickson received patents of nobility. On the next day (25) a thanksgiving service for the safe return of the expedition was held in the Castle Chapel at Stockholm. The king afterwards paid a visit to the "Vega," and presented each member of the expedition with a commemorative medal.

26. The Baptist Union of Great Britain and Ireland opened its annual session at Bloomsbury Chapel, about 600 delegates being present. The progress of the movement in ninety years showed that, whilst in 1790 the number of chapels was 312, at the close of 1879 there were 3,451 with 1,028,000 sittings.

— Mr. Fleuss, the inventor of a submarine diving-dress, remained two hours under water at the Westminster Aquarium, without any communication, by tubes or otherwise, with the upper air. According to his own statement, he was able to remain under water for five hours without inconvenience, and enjoy perfect freedom of movement, and but for the need of taking food could remain still longer.

27. Lord Beaconsfield went to Windsor to deliver up his seals of office as First Lord of the Treasury and Lord Privy Seal.

— An amount of misery and starvation unknown in the memory of man reported from the Don and Trans-Ural steppes of southern and south-eastern Russia. The food for the horses and cattle having completely failed, these were dying on all sides, and at the same time prevented the conveyance of food for human beings from the less famine-stricken districts.

28. The formal transfer of the seals of office from the Conservative to the Liberal Government made at Windsor Castle. The retiring Ministers assembled at Paddington Station at noon, and reached Windsor Castle at one o'clock. For some reason the outgoing Ministers were still at the Castle when their successors arrived, but no meeting took place, as the latter entered by a different doorway. The members of the new Ministry then kissed hands, received their insignia of office, and returned to town at five o'clock.

— At Newmarket, the Two Thousand Guineas Stakes won by a head by an almost unknown outsider, the Duke of Beaufort's Petronel, by Musket—Erytheia (Fordham), the Duke of Westminster's Muncaster being second. Eighteen horses started. Mr. H. Beddington's Brotherhood, the favourite, was almost last. Time, 1 min. 52-sec.

29. At the annual meeting of the Baptist Missionary Society, the Secretary reported that the gross receipts of the year amounted to 50,351l.; an

increase of more than 4,000*l.* on the preceding year. The expenditure had been 42,513*l.*

— The two Houses of Parliament reassembled. The Right Hon. W. B. Brand re-chosen Speaker of the House of Commons for the third time, being the fourth Speaker since the Queen's accession. Mr. Brand was proposed by Sir T. Dyke Acland, and seconded by Sir P. Egerton, the oldest member on the Conservative side of the House.

30. A serious fire broke out in a wholesale drug store in Aldersgate Street, rapidly extending to the printing office of the *City Press* newspaper. At one time it was feared that the fire would spread to the network of small streets and alleys known as Cloth Fair, but this danger was averted, though two men's lives were lost in the flames.

— At Newmarket, the One Thousand Guineas Stakes won by Mr. T. E. Walker's Elizabeth, by Statesman—Fair Rosamond (C. Wood), beating the favourite, M. Lefevre's Versigny, by a length and a half; ten started; time, 1 min. 56 sec.

— The Dominion Senate at Ottawa rejected, by 32 votes to 31, the Bill for Legalising Marriage with a Deceased Wife's Sister and a Deceased Husband's Brother, which had been framed by the Dominion House of Commons.

MAY.

1. The marriage of the Princess Pauline, daughter of the King of Wurtemberg, with Dr. Willim, of Breslau, celebrated at Carlsruhe, the Princess renouncing her title and position as a member of the royal house, and assuming the name of Von Kiebach.

2. The Schumann Memorial at Bonn, raised by public subscription, unveiled in the presence of Madame Schumann, and all the musical notabilities of the district.

— The "Bacchante," with the two sons of the Prince of Wales, arrived at Spithead, after a voyage which had lasted since September 18, and in the course of which they had visited the Mediterranean, the West Indies, and Bermuda.

3. The report of the Wesleyan Missionary Society, presented at the annual meeting held in Exeter Hall, showed that the society had 445 missionaries, and 924 more agents employed in missionary work, 7,806 unpaid agents and workers, 86,753 full accredited "church" members, and 11,079 on trial. The total home and foreign income was 165,498*l.*, and the total expenditure, exclusive of last year's deficit, was 148,107*l.* The society was still in debt to the amount of 25,187*l.*

4. At Tiflis a number of Jews put on their trial charged with using Christian blood in their Passover ceremonies, and with killing a little girl for that purpose. After a six hours' trial the judges acquitted them.

— The eighty-first anniversary of the Church Missionary Society was held at Exeter Hall, under the presidency of the Earl of Chichester. The report of the previous year showed receipts 221,723*l.*, and expenditure 200,307*l.* The deficiency of 1877-1878, 24,757*l.*, had been wiped off, and the capital fund restored to its original figure, 68,281*l.*

5. At the annual meeting of the British and Foreign Bible Society, held in Exeter Hall, the Earl of Shaftesbury presiding, the report showed the total receipts to have been 213,374*l.*, and the total payments 190,639*l.* The issues from the society's house had been 1,375,673, and from depôts abroad 1,404,689 copies.

— The trial of the Directors of the West of England and South Wales Bank for issuing false balance-sheets, concluded in the Court of Queen's Bench, to which it had been removed. The verdict of not guilty, in favour of all the accused, was given by the jury after a quarter of an hour's deliberation.

— The Chester Cup won by Mr. Leopold Rothschild's *Fashion*, 3 years (6st. 5lb.), in a canter, by three lengths; ten started; time 3 min. 20 sec.; distance 1½ miles and 100 yards.

6. The Civil Tribune of the Seine declined the task of deciding between the rival claimants to the title of Prince of Lusignan. On the one hand were Monsigneur Khorenc Nar Bey, Archbishop of Besiklach, in Turkey, with his two brothers, Prince Youssouf and Prince Guy, both settled in Paris; and on the other, five orphans, whose father died in a Milan hospital, and whose guardian instituted proceedings to secure them a monopoly of the title. According to the plaintiff, Prince Leo, the direct descendant of Leo VI. of Lusignan, buried at St. Denis in 1393, was born in Armenia in 1821, and in 1846 was proclaimed King of Armenia by the insurgents. On the collapse of the insurrection he became an exile, and, after wandering over Europe, died in 1869, leaving six children; whereas the Archbishop's father was a Bagdad merchant. On the other side it was alleged that the so-called Prince Leo was an adventurer, and that his pedigree was a palpable fabrication, whereas the Archbishop was the acknowledged nephew of an aged Prince of Lusignan, living at St. Petersburg, and recognized by the Russian Government, in whose army he served under the Emperor Nicholas. His father, Amaury, who died in Turkey, had been forced by Mussulman fanaticism to translate the name Lusignan into Nar, both words meaning light, but he was the direct descendant of the Kings of Cyprus and Jerusalem. With these conflicting statements before it, the Tribunal held itself at liberty to decline an investigation into foreign pedigrees, on the ground that French courts are designed to settle differences between Frenchmen.

— Mr. Tennyson declined the Conservative Club nomination to the Lord Rectorship of the Glasgow University, in the following letter to the President, Dr. Fraser:—"May 6, 1880. Dear Sir,—I only consented to stand for your Lord Rectorship when informed by the letter of introduction, which your agreeable deputation brought, that my nomination was 'supported by a large majority, if not a totality of the students of Glasgow.' It now seems necessary that I should by standing at your invitation appear what I have steadfastly refused to be—a party candidate for the Conservative Club. The mere fact of a contest between the supporters of a nominee of a Liberal and that of a Conservative Club leads, I suppose, inevitably to this conclusion in the minds of the public, and therefore I must beg to decline the honour of your candidature. You are probably aware that some years ago the Glasgow Liberals asked me to be their candidate, and that I, in like manner, declined. Yet I would gladly accept a nomination after what has occurred on this occasion if at any time a body of students bearing no political party name

should wish to nominate me, or if both Liberals and Conservatives should ever happen to agree in foregoing the excitement of a political contest, and in desiring a Lord Rector who would not appear for installation, and who would, in fact, be a mere *roi fainéant* with nothing but the literary merits you are good enough to appreciate. I thank you for all the trouble you have taken, and I am, with best wishes for the prosperity of your University, yours faithfully, A. TENNYSON."

— A demonstrative meeting in favour of women's suffrage held in St. James's Hall, Viscountess Harberton presiding. Men were only allowed in the gallery, and the hall was so full that an "overflow" meeting had to be held in the neighbourhood.

7. Sir Charles Reed presided over the 81st anniversary meeting of the Religious Tract Society. The report stated that during the year the total circulations from the home depôt, including books, tracts, periodicals, &c., had reached 65,616,690; and from foreign depôts about 12,000,000. The total receipts of the society from all sources amounted to 172,595*l.*, and the expenditure to 169,914*l.*

— At the 72nd anniversary meeting of the London Society for Promoting Christianity among the Jews, the Earl of Shaftesbury presiding, it was stated that the amount at the disposal of the committee had been 35,203*l.* and the expenditure 36,784*l.* The total deficiency of the three preceding years amounted to 6,044*l.*

— The election at Oxford resulted in the return of Mr. A. W. Hall (Conservative), by 2,735, against 2,681 polled by Sir W. V. Harcourt, who had vacated his seat on accepting the post of Secretary of State for the Home Department.

8. A quantity of dynamite which had been stored at Faïdo, and was intended for use in the St. Gothard tunnel, exploded in a cellar adjoining the communal school. Three persons, including the schoolmaster, were killed at once, and nearly twenty other persons, principally scholars, severely wounded.

— An account published of the spread of diphtheria in Southern Russia states that the disease first showed itself in Bessarabia in 1872, where in eight years it had carried off 12,000 children. It then spread to the government of Poltawa, where a like number had fallen victims. In 1873 it reached Kherson, where the mortality of those attacked had varied from 27 to 73 per cent. In 1875 it overran the governments of Taurid (Krim), Kiew, Tchernigow, and Koursk, and with less violence other districts, until fifteen districts were infected by it. Generally speaking, of all who were attacked 81 per cent. were under twenty years of age; and of those who died, half the number were from one to five years of age; one-third from five to ten; one-tenth from five to fifteen; one-thirtieth from fifteen to twenty, and only one-hundredth of those above twenty. In some districts, entire villages were denuded of their children.

9. An exhibition of the industrial products and fine arts of Westphalia and the neighbouring districts opened at Düsseldorf. The number of exhibitors in the industrial department was 2,500, and upwards of 1,600 pictures and drawings and eighty pieces of sculpture were sent.

— The “Orient” steamship, belonging to Messrs. Anderson, of London, arrived at Adelaide, having made the entire passage from Plymouth, deducting 36 hours’ stay at the Cape of Good Hope, and making allowance for the difference of time (9 hours), in 33 days’ steaming time. The distance is 12,000 miles.

— The dress “rehearsal” of the Ober-Ammergau Passion Play given before an audience of about two thousand persons, but in consequence of the weather—alternate rain and snow—the second part had to be postponed until the following day.

10. Serious strikes throughout the manufacturing districts of the North of France; Lille, Roubaix, Croix, and Turcoing, the principal seats of the flax trade, being chiefly affected. No breach of the peace was, however, committed, but the French customs are reported to have suffered severely by the enormous smuggling of contraband goods from Belgium.

— Prince Wilhelm Montenuovo, aged 59, son of the Empress Marie Louise (widow of Napoleon I.), by her morganatic marriage with Count Neipperg, a cavalry General in the Austrian service, admitted as a patient at the private lunatic asylum at Döbling.

11. A statement of the annual suicides per million inhabitants in certain countries during the last decade gives the following results:—Saxony, 300; Denmark, 280; Wurtemberg, 180; Mecklenburg, 167; Baden, 156; Prussia, 133; Austria, 122; Bavaria, 103; Sweden, 81; Belgium, 73; and Norway, 40.

— Some undergraduates at University College, as was supposed, concerned in “screwing up” the doors of the Senior Proctor’s rooms, as well as those of another college tutor. The Master and Fellows the next day issued an order that all who were within college between the hours of nine and twelve, except such as gave their word to the Master that they were not concerned in the proceedings, must leave Oxford that night before nine o’clock. Upon strong representations and further explanation the rustication order was withdrawn, and the undergraduates allowed to return to complete their term.

12. At the annual Church Conference held at Salt Lake City, one of the chief apostles, Erastus Snow, delivered the address. The report of the church officers stated that the Mormon population in Utah was 111,280, in Colorado 600, and in Arizona 1,894; abroad the British Mission numbered 5,257 adherents, the Scandinavian 5,205, and the German 798. During the year nearly 1,500 baptisms had been reported, but against these over 600 excommunications and removals had to be set. The receipts of church property for the year amounted to 1,097,034 dols.

— A banquet under the presidency of the Marquis of Hartington given at the Devonshire Club in honour of Sir Arthur Hobhouse and Mr. John Morley, who had contested Westminster, and Mr. Herbert Gladstone, the Liberal candidate for Middlesex.

13. M. Rousse, an advocate, the editor of the pleadings of Chaix d’Estange, elected a member of the French Academy as successor to M. Jules Favre, by 18 votes to 13 given to M. Manuel, an ex-professor and poet.

— Count Mocenigo, the representative of an old Venetian family, addressed to the British Government a claim to a large portion of the island of Cyprus, including the most fertile districts. He based his claim on the

fact that he is the direct lineal descendant and legal representative of Catarina Comaro, daughter of the celebrated Doge of Venice, who in 1468 married the Comte de Lusignan, titular king of Cyprus. The same Catarina was, moreover, niece and heiress of the Cardinal Comaro, who purchased from the Hospitallers the lands they were forced to sell.

14. A monument, provided by sixpenny subscriptions, erected in Woolwich cemetery on the summit of a hillock in which the unclaimed bodies of those who had perished in the "Princess Alice" accident in September 1878, were buried.

— The British Reformation Society, through Lord Oranmore, having presented to Mr. Gladstone a resolution condemnatory of the appointment of two Roman Catholic peers to the office of Viceroy of India and Lord Chamberlain, a reply was sent to the society explaining that the functions of both officials were purely lay and civil.

— The Sultan having addressed a letter to the Czar asking the latter to consent to the commutation of the sentence of death passed by the Turkish tribunal on the murderer of Colonel Comaroff, the Czar declined to accede to the request, as the pardon of so wanton a crime would establish a bad precedent and compromise the security of foreigners.

— The House of Lords sat for a short time to enable Peers to take and subscribe the oath, Lord Blackburn presiding on the woolsack in the absence of the Lord Chancellor.

15. The case of *Lambri v. Labouchere*, for libel, concluded at the Court of Queen's Bench, after a six days' hearing, in an immediate verdict for the defendant. The trial was in the form of a criminal indictment for libel, Mr. Labouchere having described Lambri in his journal, *Truth*, as one of a gang of cardsharps. The defendant pleaded a justification of his libel, and supported his pleas with evidence which wholly satisfied the jury.

— At the Birchall Hall Iron Works, Wallsall, an almost new boiler suddenly exploded, and its upper part shot up into the air to the height of 200 feet. The main body of the boiler was split into two pieces, one of which was blown to a distance of 60 yards, whilst the other fragment, weighing 20 tons, was thrown across the canal. Of the forty men at work in the neighbourhood of the boiler, twelve were killed instantly, and ten more died soon afterwards, and nearly forty more in various parts of the works were seriously injured.

16. The currant "vineyards" of the Morea at Patras seriously damaged by a malady called "anthracinose," causing the growth of a rough excrescence on the young shoots, followed by the withering and dropping off of the leaves and fruit. The prevalence of the phylloxera in France apparently exercises a great influence on the currant trade, as during the past year a thousand tons of currants were exported for making French wines, especially champagne.

— At a conference of the Irish Home Rule Members, held at the City Hall, Dublin, Mr. Parnell, M.P., was elected Sessional Chairman in the place of Mr. Shaw, M.P., by 23 votes against 18.

17. The first performance of the Ober-Ammergau Passion Play, lasting from eight in the morning till five in the afternoon, took place in the presence of about 5,000 spectators.

— The twelfth annual Co-operative Congress opened at Newcastle under

the presidency of the Bishop of Durham, who, in his inaugural addresses, described co-operation as the development of free trade and liberty, the opponent of Communism, and aid to moral and material progress.

18. In the oil districts of Bradford, Pennsylvania, fires raged for ten days over an area of almost thirty miles in length, and an average width of three miles. Rew City, Rixford Oil Centre, Morrisburg, and Middaughville, all important petroleum centres, were entirely destroyed, leaving 1,500 people houseless, consuming about 300,000 barrels of oil, 700 "oil rigs," with their engines and machinery, and burning down thousands of acres of valuable timber.

— A meeting of the old members of Boodle's Club, Lord Redesdale in the chair, took place at Willis's Rooms, to consider the pretensions of the proprietor (Mr. Gainer) to make rules which should be binding on the members. The Duke of Norfolk, Lord Sefton, Mr. J. Lowther, &c., were among the speakers, and a strong protest was unanimously adopted.

— The Farmers' Candidate Committee in Herefordshire resolved to make their representative, Mr. Duckworth, M.P. for the county, an allowance of 500*l*. The other paid members of the new Parliament are Mr. Burt, M.P. for Morpeth, as representing the Miners' Union, and Mr. Broadhurst, M.P. for Stoke-upon-Trent, representing the Trades' Union.

— At Sandwich the Conservative candidate, Mr. Crompton Roberts, polled 1,145 votes against 705 given for Sir Julian Goldsmid; and in the Wigtown Burghs the Lord Advocate won by a majority of 23, Mr. Mark Stewart polling 656 votes. At the General Election the same candidates had stood, and Mr. J. M'Laren, subsequently made Lord Advocate, was returned by a majority of 12.

19. A great outbreak of fire occurred in Walworth, threatening at one time to destroy a section of the London, Chatham and Dover Railway, the traffic of which was interrupted temporarily by the flames and heated smoke. The fire broke out in the workshops of a large carpenter and timber merchant in the afternoon, and was not wholly subdued till near nightfall.

— A meeting of the prominent members of the Conservative Party, called together by the Earl of Beaconsfield, met at Bridgwater House, and was attended by at least 450 members of the two Houses. The meeting was strictly private, but it transpired that speeches were made by the Earl of Beaconsfield, who advocated the organisation of the working classes in a Conservative spirit, by the Duke of Buccleuch, Sir Robert Peel, Lord Carnarvon, and others.

— Full dress Parliamentary dinners given by Mr. Gladstone and Earl Granville to the movers and seconders of the Address to the Crown in answer to the Royal Message.

— At the yearly meeting in London of the Society of Friends, the statistics presented showed that the Quakers number 14,894 in Great Britain, and 2,938 in Ireland, an increase of 183 over the previous year. The great strength of the body is in the United States. In Indiana alone the "Friends" are as numerous as in England. Large groups are also to be found in Pennsylvania, New York, Iowa, Kansas, and Illinois. A group of 100 Mexicans is found at Matamoras, and a negro group assembles at Helena in Arkansas. On Mount Lebanon 30 Syrian Friends reside. Small bodies exist in Norway, Denmark, Germany, and France, and above 300 are scattered over

Australasia. In the newly-elected House of Commons are 10 members of the Society, whilst twelve others were born and trained in its communion.

20. The new Parliament assembled for the despatch of business, the Royal Message being read by Commissioners. In the House of Lords the Address to the Crown was moved by the Earl of Elgin, and seconded by Lord Sandhurst; and in the Commons by Mr. Albert Grey, and seconded by Mr. Hugh Mason.

— The sheriff of Tipperary, the resident magistrate, and a party of police, having to evict a tenant who owed 750*l.* for more than a year's rent for his farm, on arriving found the house barricaded with felled trees and other obstacles. The tenant's wife appeared at an upper window, and threatened the police with violence. The latter, having procured a ladder, attempted to enter the house through a window, but were beaten off with pitchforks, and lead, boiling water, and stones thrown at them. The door having been at length battered open, the sheriff rushed in, and found a number of men armed with scythes, hatchets, &c., of whom 13 were eventually arrested, and about ten escaped.

— The foundation-stone of Truro Cathedral laid by the Prince and Princess of Wales, whose visit as well as the occasion was marked by special festivities throughout Cornwall. No Duke of Cornwall (Prince of Wales) had visited the Duchy since 1645, when Prince Charles raised it in support of the failing Royal cause.

— The Old Catholic synod opened at Geneva, Bishop Herzog presiding. Amongst those who attended were Père Hyacinthe, the Old Catholic Bishop of Mexico, Bishop Plunkett, &c.

— The King and Queen of Greece left Athens on a long tour to the principal Courts of Europe.

21. The General Assembly of the Established Church of Scotland held its second meeting at Edinburgh. It appeared from the report that there were 1,961 schools connected with the Church, an increase of 62 on last year, with 185,796 scholars, or 12,599 increase.

— The Philadelphia and Reading Railway Company suspended payments, as well as an auxiliary company known as the Reading Iron and Coal Company. The immediate cause of the suspension stated to be the protest of a considerable number of credit notes. The par value of the railroad stock stated to be 194,500,000 dols.

— The Report of the Committee of the Rowland Hill Memorial Fund showed that a total sum of 16,537*l.* had been collected, at which it was resolved to devote not more than 2,000*l.* to a statue in the City of London and a memorial in Westminster, and to apply the remainder to the nucleus of a benevolent fund for the help of aged and distressed Post Office servants.

22. The *Times* adopted the system of reporting by telephone the speeches delivered in the House of Commons after midnight. The necessary wires between the printing office and the House of Commons having been laid in the subway of the Thames Embankment, one of Edison's loud-speaking telephones was placed at either end. The notes made by the reporter in the gallery are read into the telephone receiver, and at the other end the compositor at his machine sits with his ear to the conductor.

— Annual meeting of Bicyclists at Hampton Court attended by nearly

2,000 members, representing 118 clubs in all parts of the country. All reached the rendezvous on their bicycles.

23. The day fixed for a demonstration at the Père Lachaise Cemetery over the trenches in which were buried the Paris Communists who fell fighting against the Versailles army. At the last moment the leaders of the movement gave notice of the abandonment of the demonstration, in consequence of the intention of the Government to employ force if necessary. Two men with red crowns, a third with a black crown, were arrested by the police, as well as about a dozen persons who attempted to distribute *immortelles*.

— A statue of Count Stephen Szechenyi, the great social political reformer of Hungary, unveiled at Pesth by the Archduke Joseph, representing the Emperor of Austria.

24. The Byron statue erected in Hamilton Gardens, Hyde Park, unveiled without any formality by Lord Houghton. The amount raised by public subscription was 3,500*l.*; but the expenses attendant on holding two competitive exhibitions of design had absorbed 1,000*l.* The successful competitor was Mr. R. C. Belt.

— Cardinal Newman entertained by the Provost and Fellows of Oriel College, Oxford, after having been previously entertained at a grand fête in the hall and gardens of Trinity College.

25. Under a hillock near Sandeherren, in Norway, a sailing vessel discovered which is thought to be upwards of a thousand years old, and to have belonged to the Vikings, and to be similar to those in which the Norsemen made their descents upon other countries. The ship is about 75 feet long, armed and equipped, with fragments of sails and cordage remaining. Near the rudder were the skeletons of their horses.

— Sir William Harcourt returned unopposed for Derby, in the room of Mr. S. Plimsoll, who voluntarily retired in order that the Home Secretary might have a seat in the House of Commons.

— M. Guillaume Guizot dismissed from the directorship of the Non-Catholic branch of the French Ministry of Public Worship, to which he had been appointed in 1869 by M. Emile Ollivier. M. Eugène Hepp, a member of the Confession of Augsburg, nominated to the post.

26. King Humbert opened in person the fourteenth Italian Parliament, the first elected since his accession to the throne. The extreme Left party in the Chamber, under the leadership of Signors Crispi and Nicotera, ostentatiously abstained from joining in the otherwise general applause with which the arrival and departure and the speech of the King were greeted.

— Nineteen horses started for the Derby Stakes at Epsom, which were won by the favourite, the Duke of Westminster's Bend Or, by Doncaster—Rouge Rose, ridden by F. Archer, who in the last stride defeated Mr. C. Brewer's Robert the Devil by a head; the third horse, Mask, was twelve lengths behind. Time, 2 min. 48 sec.

— The trial of the Nihilist prisoners charged with conspiracy in the various attempts on the Czar's life and other crimes brought to a close. The members of the court-martial retired at two in the afternoon, and at a quarter-past three in the morning returned, finding all the prisoners guilty. Two only, Michailoff and Saburoff, were sentenced to death; Dr.

Weimar and another to fifteen years' hard labour in the mines ; and a third to twenty years. Three women were sentenced to periods of hard labour in Government factories varying from four to fifteen years, and a fourth to be exiled to the Government of Tobolsk.

27. The want of accommodation in the House of Commons for members anxious to hear the debates gave rise to a number of suggestions. Amongst these Mr. Serjeant Simon wished to limit the existing power of members to secure and retain seats by dummy hats and other parliamentary means. Mr. Mitchell Henry urged that a new and larger chamber be built over the present Commons' Court. Mr. Gladstone, however, thought that when the zeal of new members was cooled down a little there would be room enough.

— M. de Lesseps's annual report of the Suez Canal showed that during the year 1879 the number of ships which had passed through the Canal was 1,477, of 3,236,942 tons, as compared with 1,593 ships in 1878, and 1,633 ships in 1877. The total receipts in 1879 had been 30,949,148 frs., and the expenditure, including 5 per cent. interest and sinking fund on the share capital, 28,059,800 frs.

— After a prolonged debate on Dr. Robertson Smith's article "Bible" in the "Encyclopædia Britannica" by the General Assembly of the Free Church of Scotland, the final division was taken on the motions of Sir Henry Moncrieff and Dr. Beath. The object of the former, which was to deprive Professor Smith of his chair but leave his position in the Church intact, received 292 votes, whilst the latter, which was supported by 299, proposed only to admonish the Professor and to leave him in the enjoyment of his chair.

— The total amount realised by the sale of the contents of the San Donato Palace, belonging to Prince Demidoff, which lasted some weeks, given as follows : pictures, works of art, curiosities, &c., 6,579,581 frs. ; plants, 109,464 frs. ; library, 118,142 frs. ; furniture, 37,269 frs. Total, 6,845,455 frs. (273,778*l.*).

28. At Epsom the race for the Oak Stakes won by an extreme outsider, Mr. Cookson's Jenny Howlet, by the Palmer—Jenny Diver, ridden by Snowden. There were thirteen starters. The winner cantered in four lengths in advance of Bonnie Marden, whilst the favourite, Versigny, a French horse, was ninth, and the Hungarian-bred Merény, eleventh. Time, 2 min. 49 sec.

— A pamphlet issued in Berlin giving the statutes of a proposed "Anti-Semitic-League," which is to save Germany from entire Judification. Clubs are to be established into which no Jews are admissible, the members of which are to postpone all private interests in order to render Germany habitable to their descendants. With this view Jewish immigration is to be hindered, the appointment of Jews to public posts to be agitated against, competition with Jews in every branch of life, especially in journalism, to be assisted pecuniarily or otherwise. All decisions made in the club are to be strictly secret, and a modern Vehmgericht thus established. In Hungary a similar league already existed.

29. The Grand Hotel erected at the corner of Northumberland Avenue and Charing Cross opened by the Lord Mayor. The building, of which the ground floor is let out in shops, cost more than 100,000*l.*

31. At the anniversary meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, Lord Northbrook, the president, presented the Royal (Patron's) Medal to Lieutenant

A. Louis Palander for navigating the Swedish exploration ship "Vega" along the unsurveyed shores of Northern Asia. The Founder's Medal was at the same time awarded to Mr. Ernest Giles, who had led four great expeditions through the interior of Western Australia in the years 1872-6, during which 6,000 miles of route were surveyed, and 20,000 miles of new country discovered.

— In the House of Lords, Mr. Lowe as Viscount Sherbrooke made his first speech, urging that elementary education should be limited to instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic—that all branches outside these partook of the nature of secondary education, which one class of the community should not be taxed to provide for another.

— The Marquis of Ripon, the new Viceroy of India, arrived at Bombay, and after a short stay proceeded to Simla.

— The first number of the *St. James's Gazette*, an evening paper, appeared under the editorship of Mr. Fred. Greenwood, who had been connected with the *Pall Mall Gazette* since its formation; Mr. John Morley having succeeded Mr. Greenwood as editor of the latter journal.

JUNE.

1. The Emperor of Austria, accompanied by a military staff, arrived in Prague for a week's stay, preparatory to a tour of inspection through the garrison cities and towns of Bohemia and Moravia. In spite of all efforts to prevent it, the visit became the cause of a general Czechish ovation.

2. A meeting held at Her Majesty's Theatre to present an address of the Middlesex Liberals to Mr. Herbert Gladstone for contesting the county at the late election. Mr. W. E. Forster presided. The Prime Minister and Mrs. Gladstone were present.

— A number of gold and silver coins, together with twenty-two pieces of silver plate, of rare workmanship, weighing 293 ounces, found in the shaft of a chimney in Leicester Square. The coins belonged to the reigns of Charles II. and his immediate successors. All the articles were handed over to the Treasury officials.

— The Four-in-hand Club held its opening meet of the season in Hyde Park, where in spite of bad weather 21 coaches put in an appearance.

— Lady Mary Hamilton, whose former marriage with the Prince of Monaco had been dissolved, married, with much splendour at Pesth, to Count Tassilo Festetics, a great Hungarian noble. Cardinal Simon, the primate, conducted the service.

— Sir John Lubbock returned for the University of London without contest, in the place of Mr. Lowe, created Viscount Sherbrooke.

3. A horrible discovery made at a house in Harley Street, London. The butler, in clearing out a cellar under the pavement, found in a cask the body of a woman, much decomposed, and covered with a few vestiges only of clothing. The body had been covered with chloride of lime, which preserves instead of destroying flesh, but the head and features were past recognition. The medical evidence tended to prove that the body was that of a middle-aged woman, who had been killed by a stab just above the heart, and that she

had been dead about two years. No clue could be obtained by the police as to the identity of the person or the perpetrator of the murder, nor could the proprietor of the house, who had resided there for twenty years, give any assistance in unravelling the mystery.

— A performance of Æschylus' tragedy of "Agamemnon" given in Greek in the hall of Balliol College, Oxford, before a large and distinguished audience, and with so much success that a second performance on the following day was found necessary to meet the applications for tickets. The object of the actors was to reproduce as nearly as possible the effect of a Greek tragedy as played before an Athenian audience. The following was the "caste" of the characters :—

<i>Watchman</i> . . .	Mr. W. L. Courtney, New Col.
<i>Clytemnestra</i> . .	Mr. F. R. Benson, ,,
<i>Herald</i> . . .	Mr. J. A. Foot ,,
<i>Ægisthus</i> . . .	Mr. H. A. C. Dunn ,,
<i>Agamemnon</i> . . .	Mr. W. N. Bruce, Balliol
<i>Cassandra</i> . . .	Mr. G. Lawrence, C.C.C.

The guests were entertained by the Master of Balliol (Mr. Jowett), who warmly supported the idea, which originated with Mr. W. L. Courtney, of New College, by whom all the arrangements were made. The "Agamemnon" was by request subsequently repeated at Eton, Harrow, and Winchester.

4. A duel took place at Myes, a village on the Franco-Swiss frontier, between M. Koechlin, brother-in-law of M. Andrieux, the French *préfet de police*, and M. Rochefort—the latter being charged with calumniating M. Andrieux. At the end of two minutes M. Rochefort was wounded, and the seconds interfered.

— Lord Carnarvon brought forward in the House of Lords a motion having for its object the compulsory insurance of every man's life by the payment to the Treasury of 10*l.*, in return for which he would be entitled to a weekly payment during sickness and in old age.

— The petition against the return of Mr. Greer, the elected member for Carrickfergus, dismissed, and that against Baron de Ferrieres, the member for Cheltenham, withdrawn.

5. Lord Penzance, sitting as Dean of Arches, in the library of Lambeth Palace, delivered judgment in the new case of *Martin v. Mackonochie*, under the Public Worship Regulation Act. The case was heard in April, the defendant appearing neither in person nor by counsel. No attempt having been made to enforce the suspension *ab officio et beneficio*, pronounced in a former suit, Lord Penzance held that it was neither fitting nor seemly that the court should pass and ignore its solemn decree, and supersede it as nugatory by a second sentence in respect of similar offence.

— Diplomatic relations suspended between Belgium and the Vatican in consequence of the hostile attitude of Belgian bishops receiving support from Rome.

— The railway up Mount Vesuvius opened for traffic.

— At Paris, the *prix du Salon*, for the best exhibited work of the year, adjudged to a young sculptor, M. Augustin Suchetet, for his figure of "Biblis changed into a fountain." The young and unknown artist, who comes from Champagne, finished his work with great difficulty and in extreme poverty, and then fell ill of typhoid. During his illness it was dis-

covered in the hovel where the artist lay ill, by M. Dubois, who undertook to send it to the Salon. Suchetet, on his recovery, found himself both rich and famous, orders having come from all quarters.

6. The Grand Prix de Paris won easily by an English horse, Mr. C. Brewer's Robert the Devil, by Bertram—Cast-off (C. Rossiter)—which had been second for the Derby—beating Le Destriex by a head. The French favourite, Beauminet, was fourth. Ten started. Distance 1 mile 7 furlongs. Time 3 min. 16½ sec.

7. The Lords Justices of Appeal confirmed the decision of Lord Coleridge, in the case of the Duke of Norfolk *v.* Arbuthnot, that the Fitzalan chapel formed no part of the parish church of Arundel; that it was the exclusive property of the Howard family, by whom it was used as a family vault. No religious service had been performed there since 1544.

— At the Royal Institute of British Architects the gold medal given by the Queen awarded to Mr. J. L. Pearson, the architect of Truro Cathedral.

— A new arcade opened between Bond Street and Albemarle Street, built on the site of the old Albemarle Hotel, from a design by Messrs. Archer and Green.

8. At the Republican Convention held at Chicago, General James A. Garfield, who up to the 34th ballot had had only 3 votes, obtained at the 36th ballot 399 votes, against 366 given to General Grant, 42 to Mr. Blaine, 5 to Mr. Washbourne, and 3 to General Sherman.

— The German Government issued invitations for a conference on the Greek Frontier Question, to be held at Berlin on the 16th.

— The petition filed by Colonel Tomline against the return of Sir Henry Tyler for Harwich dismissed with costs; that filed by Sir Algernon Borthwick against Mr. Ratcliff, who had been returned for Evesham, was declared to have been proved and the election pronounced void.

— The translation of the remains of Vaso di Gama and Camoens to the church of the monastery at Belem made the occasion of a grand national fête at Lisbon and elsewhere in Portugal.

— At Ascot, the Prince of Wales' Stakes, for which twelve 3-year old horses started, won by Lord Bradford's Zealot, by Hermit—Zelle, 8 st. 10 lbs., defeating the favourite, Mr. Naylor's The Abbot, by a neck. The Ascot Stakes, for which seven started, was won by Mr. R. Jardine's Teviotdale (3 yrs., 5 st. 11 lbs.), the favourite, easily by five lengths, distance, two miles; time, 3 min. 38 sec.

9. At Ascot, the Royal Hunt Club won in a canter by three lengths by Mr. Foy's Strathern, by Strathconan—Charmione, 4 yrs., 6 st. 4 lbs., against whom the betting at starting had been 40 to 1. Thirty-one horses started. Ruperra, the favourite, was in the last lot.

10. The Gold Cup at Ascot, for which only three horses started, won in a canter by a length by Mr. F. Gretton's Isonomy, 5 yrs., 9 st. 0 lb., defeating Lord Bradford's Chippendale and Count Lagrange's Zest, both 4-year old, carrying 8 st. 10 lbs.; distance, 2½ miles; time, 4 min. 45 sec.

11. In the House of Lords, Lord Carnarvon called attention to the condition of Armenia, where quite recently 144 villages had been swept away by Kurdish invaders; and neither human life nor property was safe. Lord Salisbury, while admitting all the evils, declared that he knew no remedy,

as the Sultan's Government had not the power, even if it had the will, to introduce reforms.

— Canon Ryle consecrated first Bishop of Liverpool in York Minster by the Archbishop of York, assisted by the Bishops of Durham, Chester, and Manchester.

12. Mr. Bevan, Liberal member for Gravesend, unseated for bribery.

13. Hospital Sunday in London. The total sum received by the committee and available was 29,689*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*, which was distributed among 130 institutions. A sum of five hundred guineas proposed for the Eastbourne Convalescent Home was held over until a charge of Ritualistic proselytising brought against one of the sisters was cleared up.

16. The second Conference of Berlin assembled, and elected as its president Prince Hohenlohe, German Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. All the Powers interested, except Turkey and Greece, were represented.

— The remains of Giovanni Polli, "the Apostle of Cremation," solemnly incinerated at Milan. This was stated to be the sixty-eighth instance of cremation in Milan since 1876.

— The freedom of the City of London presented to the King of the Hellenes. The Prince and Princess of Wales, the Duke of Cambridge, and Mr. Gladstone were present, and made speeches with reference to the claims of Greece under the Berlin Treaty.

17. The 179th anniversary of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel held in St. James's Hall, under the presidency of the Archbishop of Canterbury. The income of the year had been 131,174*l.*, with which 152 missionaries were maintained in Asia, 124 in Africa, 65 in Australasia and the Pacific, 256 in America and the West Indies, and two in Europe.

— A goods train on the Hereford, Hay, and Brecon Railway was precipitated into the river Wye through the giving way of a bridge as the train was crossing. The engine-driver was killed.

— The new harbour at Holyhead opened by the Prince of Wales, who in 1873 had inaugurated the breakwater by which the harbour is protected.

— Mr. Vicat Cole and Mr. John L. Pearson (architect), Associates of the Royal Academy, elected Academicians.

— The Bank of England official minimum rate of discount reduced from 3 per cent., to which it had been raised on November 6 last, to 2½ per cent. The Bank reserve stood at 17,393,639*l.*, and the proportion to the liabilities at 51 per cent.

18. The principal novelty of the Henley Regatta was the entry of a German crew from Frankfort for the Grand Challenge Cup, which was eventually won by the Leander Club; but the Germans defeated the Kingston crew in the trial heat, and were only beaten by the London Rowing Club after a severe struggle.

— At Moscow, the statue of the national poet Pouchkine unveiled by the Prince of Oldenburg, after a religious service by the Metropolitan—the first occasion on which a statue to a commoner had been inaugurated by a member of the Imperial family.

— In the House of Lords, Lord Norton moved and carried the abrogation, by 98 votes against 50, of the Fourth Schedule of the new Order in Council under which higher instruction could be given in certain elementary schools.

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19. M. de Freycinet, the French Premier, brought in the Bill for the complete amnesty of all persons condemned for crimes and offences connected with the insurrections of 1870 and 1871, and also of all persons sentenced for political or press offences up to the present time. The Bill was pronounced urgent and disposed of with unexampled rapidity in a single sitting by the Chamber of Deputies, 333 voting in its favour against 140.

20. In the municipal and provincial elections at Rome, the clerical party carried their list almost entire—Prince Chigi, the Marshal of the Conclave at the recent Papal election, polling more votes than Garibaldi.

— At an election of a member of the Paris Municipal Council for the district of Père-la-Chaise, Trinquet, a prominent Communist, and then in New Caledonia, elected by 2,358 votes against 1,897 given to the next candidate.

22. The elections at Canterbury, Macclesfield, Tewkesbury, Bewdley, and Wallingford declared null and void ; but the petition against Mr. C. P. Phipps at Westbury dismissed with costs.

— The French Comptoir d'Escompte tendered for the whole of new Indian Rupee loan, and brought out at Calcutta. The whole loan was for two and a half millions at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., for which the French tender, at 103 rupees, 3 annas, was accepted—except 500 rupees, for which a native tendered at 110 rupees, 1 anna.

24. The Prince and Princess of Wales inaugurated a playground in White-chapel, formed on the site of the old Quakers' burial-ground ; and the Duke and Duchess of Connaught opened the new Albert and Victoria Docks below Poplar.

— The Burials Bill passed the third reading in the House of Lords without a division, after a brilliant attack from the Bishop of Peterborough and Lord Beaconsfield.

— The Duke of Abercorn, as Chancellor, took the chair at the first meeting of the Senate of the New Irish University—the Royal University—the creation of the late Government, which is to absorb the Queen's Colleges and to confer degrees. Lord O'Hagan, Lord Chancellor of Ireland, was elected Vice-Chancellor.

— Captain Carter and Mr. J. Cadenhead, leaders of the Belgian African Exploration party, killed in an engagement with the chief Mirambo. The expedition had started from the Society's station at Karema, on Lake Tanganyika, on June 13, to meet Mr. Stanley, who had started to cross the continent from the opposite side.

25. The writ of error in the case of Thomas Castro, *alias* Arthur Orton, *alias* Sir Roger C. Tichborne *v.* the Queen, argued for two days before the Court of Appeal ; the point in dispute being whether, having been convicted on two counts of an indictment for perjury—seven years' penal servitude on each count—the two terms were concurrent or consecutive. Lord Justice James said the writ of error had been imprudently granted ; that there were two distinct acts of perjury, for each of which the prisoner was liable. Lords Justices Bramwell and Brett concurred, and judgment having been entered for the Crown the Claimant remains in prison for another period of seven years.

— The Harveian Oration (established in 1656) delivered before the Royal College of Physicians by Dr. John W. Ogle, who traced the various steps in

our knowledge of the circulation of the blood from Homer to the present time.

— Sir Edward Bates unseated for Plymouth on the ground of corrupt payments by his agents, though his own gifts in charity and for public purposes were held to be harmless and laudable.

26. The election petitions against the members returned for Leominster, Bury St. Edmunds, Wilton, Nottingham and Horsham, withdrawn.

— The three remaining toll bridges over the Thames, *viz.* Wandsworth, Putney, and Hammersmith, thrown open to the public. Ten bridges in all were freed by the Metropolitan Board of Works, at a cost of 1,377,325*l.*; the original claims having been 2,338,095*l.* The redemption money paid was as follows :—Waterloo Bridge, 474,200*l.*; Charing Cross, 98,540*l.*; Lambeth, 35,974*l.*; Vauxhall, 255,000*l.*; Chelsea, 75,000*l.*; Albert and Battersea, 170,000*l.*; Wandsworth, 53,311*l.*; Putney (or Fulham), 58,000*l.*; Hammersmith, 112,500*l.*; Deptford Creek, 44,800*l.*

27. The Kelly gang of bushrangers, which, in spite of the enormous rewards offered for their capture by the Government of Victoria, had pursued unchecked their career of murder and robbery, at length brought to bay. On the previous day, the gang had made, at a place called Sebastopol, an attack upon a hut, and killed its owner. On the news becoming known at Beechwick and Melbourne, a special train with trackers and constables was despatched to the scene of the murder. Apprehending danger, a pilot engine sent on before came back with an intimation that a man in a state of great excitement had stopped the engine and stated that Glenrowan was “stuck up” by the Kellys, who had torn up the lines. The man then disappeared into the wood, and it was discovered that just behind a curve the rails had been removed, and the train would have been thrown into a deep gully. Superintendent Hare, with one or two of the police, proceeded with the pilot-engine to the railway station, closely followed by the special. The instant the men stepped on to the platform a shot was fired from Jones’s Hotel. Superintendent Hare walked boldly towards the hotel, and when within about twenty-five yards of the verandah a man came round the corner and fired a shot which took effect in the superintendent’s wrist, who nevertheless returned the fire. Just before Superintendent Hare was wounded, a local policeman who had been made prisoner in the hotel made his escape, and spread the information that about forty inmates were kept there under watch. The Kellys fired four shots amongst the police and uttered brutal language, calling upon the police to come on. After the lapse of an hour, Superintendent Hare having had his wrist bandaged by the reporters, there being no doctor present, returned to the trenches in which the police had stationed themselves, and the firing upon the hotel was resumed, and two children imprisoned in the hotel by the gang were wounded. The firing was kept up by the police all night, several reinforcements having arrived from the neighbouring stations. In one heavy volley one of the gang, named Joe Byrne, was shot in the groin while drinking at the bar, and died shortly after. Before dawn the police were disposed all round the hotel, when they found themselves unexpectedly attacked from the rear by Ned Kelly. It appears that he was the man who shot Superintendent Hare, and that he was himself wounded in the arm by the fire which was returned. He could not return to the hotel, so he sprang upon a horse and got away, but on second thoughts rejoined his comrades. He was protected by heavy plates of quarter-inch iron, made of

flattened ploughshares, and weighing 97 lbs. Several of the bullets staggered him, but he recovered and laughed at the police. He returned their fire with his revolvers. He appeared to have a charmed life. For half an hour the contest was carried on. Sergeant Steele closed in when Kelly was two yards off and fired at his legs, which brought the outlaw down wounded, but he was still determined to carry on the fight. Sergeant Steele managed to seize the hand in which Kelly held the revolver ; and finally he was secured, but not until partially disabled by three wounds. On entering the hotel, which was at length set fire to, the dead bodies of three of the gang were found—Dan Kelly, Hart, and Byrne. Jones, the landlord, was also dead, and another man, named Skerry, subsequently died. It appears that after shooting Skerrit, the gang made their way to Glenrowan, and took possession of the place, imprisoning the inhabitants in the hotel and station.

28. An inaugural meeting held at the Guildhall (London) of the Sunday School Institute (Church of England) and the Sunday School Union (Non-conformist), which this week celebrated, by services in St. Paul's and Westminster Abbey and in other ways, the hundredth anniversary of the first Sunday School, opened by Robert Raikes and Thomas Stock at Gloucester in 1780.

29. The forty-sixth annual inter-university cricket match concluded at Lord's Ground. The result raised the total number of matches gained by Cambridge to 23, Oxford having been successful in 21, whilst two have been drawn. The following is the score :—

CAMBRIDGE.

First Innings.		Second Innings.	
Hon. Ivo Bligh, c Patterson, b Harrison	59	c Trevor, b Evans	13
Mr. H. E. Whitfield, b Evans	0	c Fowler, b Harrison	32
Mr. A. G. Steel, b Harrison	19	st Fowler, b Evans	4
Mr. R. S. Jones, b Evans	1	c Colebrooke b Harrison	2
Mr. C. T. Studd, b Evans	1	c Hirst, b M'Lachlan	52
Mr. G. B. Studd, l-b-w, b Evans	38	b M'Lachlan	40
Mr. C. P. Wilson, not out	13	c and b Greene	23
Mr. A. F. Ford, b Evans	1	b Evans	0
Mr. O. P. Lancashire, b Evans	5	b M'Lachlan	29
Mr. P. H. Morton, b M'Lachlan	12	not out	16
Mr. C. W. Foley, b Thornton	0	b Evans	3
Byes, 14 ; 1-b, 3	17	Byes, 14 ; 1-b, 4	18
Total	166	Total	232

OXFORD.

First Innings.		Second Innings.	
Mr. E. L. Colebrooke, st Foley, b Steel	3	not out	34
Mr. A. H. Trevor, st Foley, b Steel	18	b Steel	4
Mr. A. H. Evans b Morton	12	b Ford	22
Mr. A. D. Greene, l-b-w, b C. T. Studd	14	run out	8
Mr. W. A. Thornton, b Morton	0	c G. B. Studd, b Steel	5
Mr. W. H. Patterson b Morton	0	b Steel	2
Mr. E. T. Hirst, not out	49	c Ford, b Steel	15
Mr. H. Fowler, b Morton	1	c C. T. Studd, b Steel	43
Mr. F. L. Evelyn, l-b-w, b Morton	0	c G. B. Studd, b Steel	1
Mr. C. G. Harrison, b Morton	0	c C. T. Studd, b Steel	10
Mr. N. M'Lachlan, b Steel	27	l-b-w, b Ford	0
Byes, 6 ; 1-b, 2	8	Byes, 5 ; 1-b, 2	7
Total	132	Total	151

30. At 4 A.M. the French police commissaries presented themselves at the door of the principal Jesuit establishment in Paris, in the Rue de Sèvres, and after a show of force, in spite of the protests, ejected the superior and twenty-two pères. The convent chapel had been closed on the previous night by the police. At the same time the Jesuit establishments at Montpellier, Troyes, Amiens, Grenoble, Nantes, Marseilles, Toulouse, Donai, and other places were closed by the police.

— The Official Report of the Indian Commissioner showed that, exclusive of Alaska, there are in the United States 255,938 Indians, all of whom, excepting about 18,000, are more or less under the control of the Government agents. In New York State there are over 50,000 Indians, and 10,000 in Michigan. In the Indian territory the civilised Indians are reckoned at 60,560, and the uncivilised at 17,750. The five civilised tribes who make up the former total have 314,398 acres under cultivation, from which they obtain large supplies of Indian corn, and, in less quantities, wheat, oats, barley, hay, and vegetables. They own 297,040 head of cattle, and 400,282 swine. The other Indians scattered throughout the Union have 170,847 acres under cultivation, and during the past year had broken 27,283 of fresh land. They own 78,812 head of cattle and 864,137 sheep. Education is making steady progress among the tribes, there being 60 boarding and 110 day schools in operation (outside the Indian territory), attended by more than 7,000 scholars.

JULY.

1. The Mar Peerage brought before the House of Lords by Lord Galloway, who moved that at the future meetings of the Scotch Peers to elect representative Peers the vote of Mr. T. Goodeve-Erskine should be taken as the Earl of Mar. The motion, which was opposed by Lords Redesdale, Blackburn, the Lord Chancellor, and the Duke of Argyll, was rejected by 80 to 52.

— The Berlin Conference terminated, after agreeing to a new Greco-Turkish frontier to be recommended for acceptance by the Porte.

— Sir Sydney Waterlow (Liberal) returned for Gravesend by a majority of 220 votes over Sir Robert Peel (Conservative).

— An application made to Vice-Chancellor Malins to commit Monsignor Capel for contempt of court, for not having complied with an order from the court to file certain papers.

— In a report on the trade of the Samoa Islands for 1879, issued by the German Government, it was stated that the imports had increased to \$298,600, and that by German merchants alone goods had been imported to the value of \$235,100. The articles which had been most in demand were manufactured goods, clothing, linen wares, and beer.

— A stormy scene arose in the Limerick Corporation out of a motion to confer the freedom of that city on Mr. Parnell, M.P. Mr. Ambrose Hall, J.P., opposed the motion, and having said that Mr. Parnell had demoralised the Irish tenant-farmers by his course of action, the speaker was cried down by an uproarious gathering which filled the precincts of the council-chamber. In vain Mr. Hall essayed to address the meeting, and the Mayor's efforts to restore order proved unavailing. A threat was uttered that Mr. Hall would

be flung through the window. The Mayor quitted the chair, and after most tumultuous proceedings the meeting broke up in the utmost confusion.

2. The County Down election trial, having occupied an unusual number of days, came to an end, Lord Castlereagh retaining his seat. The Judges were divided in opinion as to the legal effect of the course taken by the member's agent, who published to the voters a statement impugning the secrecy of the ballot. One Judge thought this enough to invalidate the election; but the other Judge held otherwise—in the absence of evidence that any voter had in fact been deterred from voting in consequence. The petition was therefore dismissed, but without costs.

— Monseigneur Dumont, the suspended Bishop of Tournay, to whose revelations is attributed the rupture between Belgium and the Vatican, published a letter received by him from Louise Lateau, the celebrated fasting "stigmatist" of Bois d'Haine. According to this letter she is held in a kind of duress by the priest, who prevents her from seeing Monseigneur Dumont, whom she persists in acknowledging as her bishop. Monseigneur Dumont declares his intention of rescuing her from the hands of "a priest who, obeying the mandates of criminal superiors, wants at all costs to keep her secluded or to put an end to her." He violently attacks Monseigneur Deschamps, whom he represents as the leader of a conspiracy against him. The Ultramontanes insist that the bishop has lost his reason.

— Mr. Bradlaugh admitted to make a solemn affirmation and to take his seat in the House of Commons. At the close of the sitting he was served with notices of action for voting when disqualified.

— The official report of the Court of Inquiry into the Tay Bridge disaster issued. Mr. Rothery, the Wreck Commissioner and President, gives as his opinion that the bridge was badly designed, badly constructed and badly maintained; that its downfall was due to inherent defects which sooner or later must have proved fatal. For the faults of the design, as well as for remissness in supervision during its construction, he held the engineer, Sir Thomas Bouch, responsible, and the contractors for the defective castings used in the bridge. Whilst agreeing with his opinions, Mr. Rothery's colleagues held that it was not within the province of the court to fix responsibility upon Sir Thomas Bouch.

3. Mr. Charles Dalrymple (Conservative) elected for Buteshire by 583 votes against 540 given to Mr. Thomas Russell (Liberal), the result being a gain of the seat by the Opposition.

— During the alterations being carried on at the General Post Office at Paris a letter was found (under a panel of one of the boxes) which had been posted exactly fifty years previously. The letter was forwarded to the address, which it reached safely, the person being still alive, though the writer had been dead for many years.

— The Archbishop of Canterbury received in the gardens of Lambeth Palace 20,000 Sunday School children of London and the neighbourhood.

— A statue of Robert Raikes the founder of Sunday Schools, erected, at the expense of Sunday School teachers and children throughout the kingdom, on the Thames Embankment.

4. A severe and widespread earthquake felt throughout Switzerland. It was felt in the Central and Pennine Alps, at Berne, Zurich, Payerne, Andermatt, on the lakes of Geneva and Lucerne, and in the Bernese Ober-

land. In the canton of St. Gall the summit of the Schnebelberg was detached, and the forest in the Murgthal destroyed. In the canton of Valais, especially between Vish and Brieg, the shock, which occasioned much damage and more alarm, was accompanied by aerial noises and underground detonations.

— Acting on the orders of the Bishop of London, the diocesan registrar attended at St. Alban's, Holborn, with a document reciting the sentence of sequestration pronounced against the incumbent, Mr. Mackonochie, and appointing a receiver of the emoluments of the church. A copy was affixed to the church door, but was speedily removed. The services, after a protest, proceeded as usual.

— A general ballot taken in the canton of Geneva on the question of the separation of Church and State. Out of an electorate of 17,000, upwards of 13,000 voted, and of these only 4,000 were for the separation.

— The Duke's Theatre, Holborn, totally destroyed by fire.

5. The third of the series of trade exhibitions at the Agricultural Hall—that of the Printers—opened. Among the exhibitors was the Lord Mayor of London; and altogether there were upwards of 150 machines in motion, including a Hooker's type-composer which is worked by magnetic action. The two previous exhibitions were those of the machinery, materials, &c. used in the brewery and building trades.

— Whilst some men were repairing a gas main, three feet in diameter, at the corner of Bayley Street, Tottenham Court Road, London, the gas caught fire, blowing one man into the pipe—whence he was taken out dead—and wounding others. This was followed by a series of explosions at intervals along the main in Percy Street, up Charlotte Street to Fitzroy Square, wrecking the road and pavement, seriously damaging the houses, and wounding many persons along a course of nearly half a mile. At the inquest which ensued it was held that great carelessness had been shown by the Gas Company's servants. The total cost for repairing the damage and satisfying claims for compensation was over 15,000*l*.

— The Lichfield election declared void on the ground of the abduction and intimidation of voters.

— As Mr. Bradlaugh was leaving the House of Commons, he was met on the mat at the door of the House and served with a writ for having voted in divisions. Mr. Bradlaugh demanded the name of the gentleman who handed him the writ. The gentleman gave his card, "Mr. Barton Brown, of the firm of Barton Brown and Co., solicitors." Mr. Bradlaugh then asked on whose behalf the writ was served, and he was told Mr. Cecil Barry was the plaintiff. Mr. Bradlaugh then denounced Mr. Brown's conduct in meeting him on the very threshold of the House, as indecent, irregular, and in the last degree improper. He desired to know how it was that the writ had not been served on him at his private house, but he was informed that his address was not known. Mr. Bradlaugh then opened the writ and found that his address was there stated in full. The scene at the door of the House attracted notice, and for a time there was considerable commotion in the lobby.

6. Belgium formally broke off diplomatic relations with the Holy See; Baron d'Anéthan, the Belgian envoy to the Vatican, removing the shield and scutcheon from the palazzo.

— The railway from the base to the cone of Mount Vesuvius, which had been in working for some weeks and attracting large numbers of excursionists, lighted by electricity, three lamps being placed at the station, nine along the tramway, and three more on the cone.

— By the published statement of accounts of the eight London Water Companies for the year 1879, the share, loan, and debenture capital of all the companies shown to amount to 12,256,430*l*. The rates, rents, and interest receivable by them amount to 2,152,102*l*., and the total expenditure for all purposes to 1,422,795*l*., admitting of a dividend on the ordinary share capital varying from 10 per cent. in the case of the West Middlesex, the highest, down to 4½ per cent., the lowest, to the shareholders of the Southwark and Vauxhall Company.

— The July Stakes at Newmarket won by Lord Falmouth's *Bal Gal* by Adventurer—Cantinière, 8 st. 11 lbs., the favourite, by a head from Mr. Lorillard's Iroquois, an American colt. Eleven started ; time, 1 min. 19½ secs.

7. The Czar's new yacht, the "*Livadia*," built for him after designs by General Todleben by Messrs. Elder of Glasgow, launched in the presence of the Grand Duke Alexis and a large circle of persons. The hull of the "*Livadia*" resembles a turbot, above which is a deck of the usual form, its length being 260 feet, breadth 150 feet, and width 50 feet. The tonnage is 11,609 ; the horse-power 10,500. The ship has three screws, which can be detached ; and the average speed, drawing 5 feet of water, was 14 knots an hour.

— From an official report on Italian Savings Banks it appears that the progress of the movement was very satisfactory, although the actual number of banks opened has not increased to any extent, being 354 in 1877, 357 in 1878, 358 in 1879. The progress, however, showed more in the number and character of the accounts, which were as follows :—

	Accounts Opened	Accounts Closed	Current Accounts
1877 . . .	178,905	132,815	880,022
1878 . . .	151,486	144,344	886,947
1879 . . .	156,513	116,420	925,466

Although the new accounts were much greater in 1877 than last year, there was a tendency to recover, while the diminution in accounts closed was very marked, as was also the improvement in current accounts. Considering, too, that the working classes in Italy, as elsewhere, had passed through a severe depression, the amounts placed to deposit were eminently favourable :—

	Number of Deposits	Value of Deposits	Credit of Depositors
		Francs	Francs
1877 . . .	1,182,307	219,016,907	547,049,817
1878 . . .	1,120,169	240,029,232	602,183,263
1879 . . .	1,189,984	265,763,186	656,813,487

The average of each credit, which was 652 francs in 1877, had risen last year to 710 francs, and the average of each deposit rose from 185 francs to 223 francs, while the average withdrawals had decreased from 282 francs to 260 francs.

— The petition against the return of Sir E. A. H. Lechmere and Mr. W. Knight for West Worcestershire, on the ground of treating, dismissed with costs against the petitioners.

— The election at Plymouth, consequent on the unseating of Sir E. Bates (Conservative) on petition, resulted in the return of Mr. E. Clarke, Q. C. (Conservative) by 2,449 votes against 2,305 given to the Liberal candidate (Sir George Young); and at Evesham the Liberal candidate, Mr. Lehman, polled 378 against 376 votes given to Mr. F. D. Dixon-Hartland, the Conservative. Neither return affected the balance of parties.

— The betrothal announced of the Princess Marie, second daughter of Prince Hugh of Windischgrätz, to Duke Paul, second son of the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin.

— The Chesterfield Stakes at Newmarket, a five-furlongs race for two-year-olds, won in a canter by three lengths by the American colt Iroquois, 8 st. 10 lbs., belonging to Mr. P. Lorillard; Lord Rosebery's Voluptuary and Count F. de Lagrange's Panique running a dead heat for the second place. Ten started; time, 1 min. 13 secs.

— The Marquess of Lansdowne resigned his post as Under-Secretary for India on the ground of disapproval of the Government Compensation for Disturbance (Ireland) Bill.

9. By a well-concerted scheme the Paris police succeeded in breaking up a band of robbers who infested the Bois de Boulogne, on the boundaries of the Suresnes and Neuilly communes, and who had succeeded the Honillon band dispersed some months previously. On the present occasion 48 men and 17 women were captured, together with their chief, a man named Thebard, who was well known to the authorities. Of the whole number 55 were recognised by the police and 35 had undergone various sentences. Among the thieves was a man of good family who had lost a large fortune by rash speculations. The names of members of the gang, such as the Vampire, Noumea, Risque-tout, Diable-a-quatre, &c., recall Eugène Sue's "Mysteries of Paris."

— Herr Herzog, the Secretary of State for Alsace and Lorraine, suddenly superseded, in consequence of his opposition to the policy of conciliation inaugurated and pursued by Baron von Manteuffel, the Imperial Governor of the annexed provinces.

— The famous Car of Juggernaut was not, according to usual custom, dragged through the streets of Puri on this day; and consequently, according to tradition, twelve years must elapse before it can again be used.

— The Russian newspapers report much mischief being done to the crops in South Russia by locusts and other insect pests. In the district of Rasachs an area of over 400 kilometres had been devastated in this way. Upwards of 5,000 men were daily employed in the work of extirpation, fully 8,000 kilogrammes of locusts being gathered every day. On the railway from Tiflis to Poti the locusts lay so thick on the line that the trains were obstructed. The *Viedomosti* says that the steppes of the Don have been swept bare of all vegetation, as if a fire had passed over the land. Fourteen companies of soldiers are employed in the Odessa district in destroying these insect plagues. The mischief is not confined to the South; swarms of locusts have been observed also in the Northern governments. A huge swarm passed by Moscow in the middle of June, at an elevation of from 70 to 100 feet.

10. At Tewkesbury Mr. Martin, Liberal, polled 380 votes against 298 given to the Conservative, Mr. Fowler; no change caused thereby.

— A Parliamentary paper issued showing that the total cost of the war in Afghanistan, excluding the frontier railways, was estimated for the three years ending March 31, 1881, at 5,982,381*l.*, whilst the actual expenditure up to June 22, 1880, had been 15,000,000*l.*, showing an excess of 9,000,000*l.* over the former estimates, and at least 3,370,000*l.* would be required to adjust the revenue expenditure of the current year.

— The annual dinner of the Cobden Club took place at Greenwich, Earl Spencer in the chair; the principal guests being M. Challemeil-Lacour (the French ambassador) and M. de Lesseps.

— The Eton and Harrow annual cricket match at Lord's ended at about five o'clock in the defeat of Eton. The following is the score:—

HARROW.

First Innings.		Second Innings.	
Mr. R. C. Ramsay, c Newton, b Paravicini .	28	b Paravicini . . .	11
Mr. A. F. Kemp, b Paravicini . . .	15	c Curzon, b. Throwley .	18
Mr. P. H. Martineau, c Paravicini, b Bainbridge . . .	21	b Paravicini . . .	2
Mr. J. Dunn, c Grenfell, b Bainbridge . .	0	b Paravicini . . .	15
Mr. M. C. Kemp, b Paravicini . . .	9	c and b Bainbridge . .	14
Mr. F. W. Stancomb, c and b Bainbridge .	8	not out . . .	8
Mr. W. E. Bolitho, b Bainbridge . . .	12	b Paravicini . . .	1
Mr. F. W. Pember, c and b Paravicini . .	9	b Paravicini . . .	11
Mr. E. M. Hadow, not out . . .	28	c Onslow, b Bainbridge .	49
Mr. F. G. L. Lucas, b Paravicini . . .	10	b Paravicini . . .	0
Mr. R. J. McNeill, c and b Jardine . . .	5	b Paravicini . . .	9
Bye, 1; 1-b, 1; w, 1 . . .	3	Byes, 2; w, 2 . . .	4
Total . . .	148	Total . . .	142

ETON.

First Innings.		Second Innings.	
Lord Throwley, c M. C. Kemp, b Ramsay .	14	b Lucas . . .	0
Lord Curzon, c and b Lucas . . .	9	c M. C. Kemp, b Lucas .	11
Mr. P. J. de Paravicini, b A. F. Kemp . .	35	b A. F. Kemp . . .	9
Mr. P. St. L. Grenfell, c M. C. Kemp, b Ramsay . . .	11	c and b A. F. Kemp . .	0
Mr. A. J. Polhill-Turner, c and b Lucas .	1	not out . . .	34
Mr. A. Hughes-Onslow, c and b Lucas . .	24	b A. F. Kemp . . .	6
Mr. W. F. Cave, 1-b-w, b Lucas . . .	0	c M. C. Kemp, b Ramsay .	10
Mr. B. Davenport, c Bolitho, b Lucas . .	1	c Hadow, b Ramsay . .	2
Mr. H. W. Bainbridge, c A. F. Kemp, b Lucas	5	b Ramsay . . .	1
Mr. A. E. Newton, not out . . .	7	c M. C., b A. F. Kemp .	8
Mr. I. Jardine, c Ramsay, b Lucas . . .	0	run out . . .	2
		Byes, 3; 1-b, 1; w, 1 .	5
Total . . .	107	Total . . .	88

11. Decree issued by President Grévy granting an amnesty to all Communists not convicted of criminal offences.

12. The Royal Agricultural Society held its annual show at Carlisle, the entries being more numerous than on any previous occasion except last year, when the show was held in London. The live stock comprised 487 horses, 434 beasts, 434 sheep, 146 pigs, and the implements were over 4,000 in number.

— M. Henri Rochefort having been amnestied by the French Government, arrived in Paris from Geneva, and was received by a large concourse at the railway station and conducted in triumph to his residence.

— The private library of Professor Mommsen at Charlottenburg, near

Berlin, destroyed by fire. Of his own unpublished works the unedited inscriptions intended as the addenda to Vol. X. of the *Corpus Inscriptionum-Latinarum* (containing Lower Italy, west), are considered to be wholly lost. On the other hand, the *Instrumentum Domesticum* of Vol. IX. (Lower Italy, east), the *Columnæ Militariæ* of Vol. X., the *Index Auctorum* of Vols. IX. and X., and the *Inscription of Helvetia* of Vol. XIII., though greatly damaged, may yet be made available. The four *Jordanes MSS.* of the libraries of Heidelberg, Berlin, Breslau, and Vienna were destroyed, as well as Professor Mommsen's own books, and three volumes of his "*History of the Empire*" in manuscript. A number of rare manuscripts belonging to the Vatican, Bodleian, Leyden University, and Trinity College, Cambridge, escaped, with some slight exceptions.

13. At Bilston, near Wolverhampton, the laying down of a new gas main necessitated the temporary cutting off of connection with the various shops and houses along the road. An escape of gas having been observed in one place, a workman incautiously applied a light to the place. A loud report followed, the road and pavement all round being at once upheaved. Further explosions took place along the course of the main for a distance of over 100 yards. Later on in the afternoon another and more violent explosion occurred, lifting the roadway with great force and inflicting serious injury upon the bystanders. The aperture in the road made by this second explosion was at least twelve yards long by six wide, and nearly four yards deep.

— A report from the Principal Agent in Central India to the Governor-General showed that the increase in the export trade of Malwa opium had during the ten years to March 31, 1879, shown an average increase of 500 chests per month over the previous ten years, giving an average annual increase of Government revenue of 44 lakhs of rupees. The figures were—

No. of chests, 10 years ended 1869,	341,412 ;	duty, Rs. 20,11,04.500
No. of chests, 10 ,, 1879,	405,094 ;	duty, Rs. 24,57,82.725.

14. First celebration of the national Republican holiday in France on the anniversary of the fall of the Bastille. The fête was general throughout France, and in no place was order disturbed.

— The Victoria University, of which Owens College, Manchester, was the central germ, opened by the Chancellor, the Duke of Devonshire.

— The amount paid by England to Turkey on account of the revenue of Cyprus for the year 1879-80 returned at 11,092,377 piastres, plus 5,000*l.*, as compared with 405,625 piastres paid for 1878-79. The aggregate receipts of the Porte in Cyprus in the year 1873-77 inclusive amounted to 83,950,051, and the expenditure 64,304,946 piastres.

— According to official returns for the period to June 30, published, the largest manufacturing industry in Ireland—porter-brewing—shown by the returns to be in a thriving state. The quantity exported to England was in round numbers 5 per cent. more than in 1878, and 10 per cent. more than in 1879. Of the whole quantity exported, considerably more than one-half came from the brewery of Guinness. The export of whisky had decreased somewhat, as might be expected from the reduced consumption of ardent spirits in England. The shipments of live stock were in excess of those in the corresponding periods of 1879, although in one item (pigs) there has been a remarkable falling off since 1878, for some reason unexplained—perhaps the arrivals from America.

15. Terrible explosion at the Risca Colliery, near Newport, South Wales, by which 119 men and boys lost their lives. It is supposed that by some means lightning entered the mine—a thunder-storm raging outside—and exploded the gas.

— The Wigtown Burgh election petition resulted in the unseating of Mr. Mark Stewart, the Conservative member. At Lichfield Colonel Leveté (C.) was returned by 578 against Sir John Swinburne (L.), 544.

— With reference to the question of the acclimatisation of salmon in Tasmania the following paragraph appeared in the *Hobart Town Mercury*: “A fine fish, said to belong to the *salmo salar* tribe, was captured in the river Shannon, near its junction with the Great Lake, a few days ago. The fish was taken by a shepherd in the employment of Mr. James Haddon, of Green Ponds, and it is stated that a large number of similar fish have been seen going up the river, with a view, it is supposed, to spawning in the Great Lake. The specimen has been packed in snow, and will be sent to the Melbourne Exhibition Commission. It is said to be about 30 inches in length and of considerable girth, so that it should weigh upwards of 20 lbs.”

16. In the House of Commons, at the close of the debates on Mr. Briggs's motion, condemning the erection in Westminster Abbey of a monument to the late Prince Imperial, being put, Mr. Gladstone and the occupants of the Treasury Bench left the House. The motion having been carried by a majority of fifteen, Sir H. D. Wolff inquired whether Ministers having heard the question put were not bound to vote. The Speaker ruled that it was quite in order for anyone to withdraw before a division; but after a long and angry discussion on this point the Speaker ultimately ruled that members who had heard the question put the second time were bound to vote. In the present case the Ministers had left previously.

17. The Right Hon. J. G. Dodson, President of the Local Government Board and member of the Cabinet, and the Hon. Beilby Lawley, unseated for Chester on the ground of illegal practices by their agents. Both members were acquitted of complicity, but the Judges (Lush and Manisty) declared their intention of reporting to the Speaker of the House of Commons that corrupt practices extensively prevailed in the city at the last general election.

— During a thick fog the screw steamer “Centurion” and the merchant ship “Hydaspes,” of 2,093 tons, came into collision off Dungeness. The latter vessel was so injured that she soon after sank, the crew and passengers being saved.

— The Postmaster-General received a deputation from the Society of Arts, who urged the reduction of the *minimum* price of telegrams from a shilling to sixpence. In replying, Mr. Fawcett said the telegraphic revenue at the present time was an improving one in the best sense of the word, not only because the gross receipts were increasing, but because the net receipts were increasing in a much more rapid ratio. In 1876 the gross revenue was 1,287,000*l.*, which left a profit of only 197,000*l.*, whereas the last financial year showed a gross revenue of 1,471,000*l.* and a profit of 354,000*l.* The estimated effect of the suggested reduction would be for the current year as follows:—Increase in working expenses, 50,000*l.*; diminution in receipts, 112,000*l.*; interest, together with sinking fund for extra capital expenditure of 100,000*l.*, 5,000*l.*—total, 167,000*l.*; and thus the estimated profit of the current year would be reduced from 450,000*l.* to 283,000*l.* If a *minimum*

charge of 6*d.* were made for a telegram containing twelve words, including the address, and a ½*d.* were charged for every additional word, the waste of the present system would be prevented. In the great majority of telegrams sent a great number of unnecessary words were put into the address and also into the body of the telegram. If it should be decided by the Chancellor of the Exchequer that the country could afford a sacrifice of revenue to the extent of 167,000*l.*, not a word of opposition would be offered by the Post-Office.

19. The polling at Berwick-on-Tweed to fill the vacancy occasioned by the succession of Mr. Strutt (L.) to the peerage, resulted in the return of Mr. Milne Home (C.) by 584 votes against 582 given to the Lord Advocate.

— A commission appointed by the Victorian Government to inquire into the number and employment of the Chinese in Australia, reported to Parliament that in 1859 the Chinese population of the colony was estimated at 46,000. Since then it had rapidly fallen, until it now numbered only 13,000. The whole number of Chinese in the Australian colonies as nearly as could be ascertained was as follows :—Queensland, 14,524 ; Victoria, 13,000 ; New South Wales, 9,500 ; New Zealand, 4,433 ; South Australia and Port Darwin, 2,000 ; Tasmania, 750—total, 44,207. It will thus be seen that there had been a decrease in the Chinese population in Victoria between the years 1859 and 1880 of 33,000, and that there were less Chinese in the whole of the Australian colonies than were formerly resident in Victoria. The Chinese population of Melbourne was about 500, and of the suburbs 380. Of these only 66 (carpenters) compete at all with European workmen, the remainder consisting of gardeners, hawkers, and others, who earn a living by doing work which Europeans would not think of performing. The population of these colonies may be estimated at about 2½ millions, about 900,000 being in Victoria.

20. Serious earthquakes occurred at Manila, by which 320 lives were lost and nearly all the inhabitants rendered houseless. Since the 12th the volcanoes in the island had shown signs of activity—sulphurous springs and fissures in the earth had occasioned great alarm. The first shock, which lasted seventy seconds, occurred on the 18th; the second, on the afternoon of the 20th, caused a general panic and flight of the inhabitants of the towns to the open country ; and the third, which followed shortly before midnight, left no building safe. The shocks were felt more or less severely throughout all the Philippine Islands. The loss of property in the towns and country was enormous.

— Heavy floods, entailing great destruction of property, reported from the Midland counties. In the neighbourhood of Leicester the Midland Railway suffered severely, many of the viaducts being carried away. On the Bala and Dolgelly railways also traffic was temporarily interrupted in consequence of the destruction of several bridges.

— General Bort, charged with stealing the diamonds from Don Carlos's Order of the Golden Fleece, acquitted by the Assize Court at Milan. There was no dispute as to the sale of the diamonds, the only question was whether the accused was acting with or without Don Carlos's sanction.

21. The Jersey States Legislature, at their meeting—Sir Robert Pipon Marett in the chair—unanimously voted a proposition that the chairman be requested to write to the English Government protesting against the Channel Islands being included amongst those places mentioned in the 16th paragraph

of the Burials Bill, and protesting against said Bill applying to the islands in question, as unnecessary and uncalled for.

— With reference to the vote in the House of Commons relative to the proposed monument to the Prince Imperial in Westminster Abbey, the following correspondence took place :—

“Cleveland Square, S. W., July 21, 1880.

“Dear Mr. Dean,—At a meeting of the Napoleon Memorial Committee, held this day, I was requested to inform you that the Committee have unanimously resolved to withdraw the proposal to place the monument of the late Prince Imperial in Henry VII.’s Chapel. I beg to remain, dear Mr. Dean, yours very faithfully,

“SYDNEY.

“The Very Rev. the Dean of Westminster.”

“Deanery, Westminster, July 21, 1880.

“My dear Lord,—I have received your Lordship’s communication of the resolution of the committee to withdraw the proposal for erecting a monument to the late Prince Imperial in King Henry VII.’s Chapel. I accede to the withdrawal. You will, perhaps, permit me to add a few words on the subject.

“There are few acts of my official life at Westminster on which I look back with more satisfaction than the acceptance of the offer of the monument to the Prince Imperial.

“It was the response to a feeling of universal sympathy which, at the time, I believed to be permanent, and which I still believe to have been genuine.

“It was in entire conformity with the best traditions of the Abbey in the commemoration of an event most tragical, and, considering all the circumstances of the case, most historical. It expressed the sense of national reparation due for a signal misfortune. “*Sunt lacrymæ rerum et mentem mortalia tangunt.*”

“I have since repeatedly refused to withdraw my consent to a proposal to which I considered myself in honour pledged. In the early part of this year I made the following public statement :—

“The authority of the Sovereign, or the Parliament, or the Ministers for the time being, would have absolved me from any responsibility in the matter. But such authority has not intervened, and so long as I am left to act on my own responsibility, I cannot recede from what I deliberately believe to be my public duty.’

“The Sovereign, who is the Visitor of the whole institution, and to whom it appertains to command or forbid the interment or the commemoration of anyone in King Henry VII.’s Chapel, has, since the acceptance of the offer, never swerved from the determination to keep the engagement then entered upon. The Ministers have supported this determination equally in the late and the present Parliament. But a majority of the House of Commons has defeated the decision of the Ministers by a resolution which has the effect of throwing upon the House the responsibility of a refusal. The resolution, to have its full effect, should have assumed the usual form which alone could give it legal validity—that of an address to the Crown as Visitor of the Abbey. But your committee have rightly judged (i.e., if I may presume to give an opinion) that a proposed honour met in a temper so unlike to that in which it was offered would lose its gracious intention.

“I have always recognised a legitimate difference of opinion on the sub-

ject. There are very few interments or commemorations in the Abbey which have not provoked some such difference. But I was not prepared to find that an overflow of generous sympathy was to be checked from political considerations, or that circumstances entirely accidental or irrelevant should have been magnified into importance, or that the liberal and comprehensive principles which, without respect to persons, or party, or nationality, have hitherto marked the administration of Westminster Abbey should have been discouraged or thwarted.

“Such an expression of opinion it may for many reasons be inexpedient to disregard. It conveys, no doubt, the views of a large amount of public feeling. I venture to utter on the part of many their grateful sense of the public spirit of those who at some risk to themselves have stood firm against what they conceived to be an illiberal and ignorant clamour. I have, further, to acknowledge the kindly expressions used on the occasion towards myself, as also (if I may venture to do so) towards the gallant and unfortunate Prince and his widowed mother. They are in striking contrast to the persistent misrepresentations and savage menaces which have hitherto supported the agitation on this subject.

“The monument, which is nearly completed, will receive a habitation worthy of the labour and skill which the gifted sculptor has bestowed upon it, and of the pathetic feelings which it embodies.

“The vacant chapel in Westminster Abbey, which should have contained it, will always cherish the association, which will give it enduring interest.

“On the adjoining pavement I long ago caused to be recorded the only act in which a precedent for the recent action of the House of Commons is sought to be found—the disinterment of the magnates of the Commonwealth under the pressure of the strong outburst of party passion which followed the Restoration. Posterity will judge how far the ungenerous spirit which governed the Parliament of 1661 still, under an altered form, survives in the Parliament of 1880. I have the honour to be, yours faithfully,

“A. P. STANLEY.”

— Rev. Enos Nuttall elected Bishop of Jamaica.

— At a meeting of the Court of Governors of Guy's Hospital, the report of the committee appointed to inquire into the questions of the supply of suitable nurses for the patients and of the due co-operation between the medical staff and the Governors was presented and adopted unanimously. The committee expressed themselves as satisfied that in all changes which had been introduced there had been an honest endeavour to supply properly trained nurses for the hospital, to provide for their comfort and health, and to place them in a position of due subordination to the direction of the medical staff. The committee were of opinion that there had been an exaggerated estimate of the effect of the changes introduced in November 1879 on the sisters and the nurses, though it was true that some persons highly valued by the medical staff had left the hospital. They reported that in about two-thirds of the wards there was now no dissatisfaction, and in many there was reason to believe that there was considerable improvement; that there was no valid reason for believing that in any case was interference with the orders of the medical staff either sanctioned or connived at by the matron; and that there was no reason to think that the present nursing arrangements had put any real hindrance in the way of medical observation or practice on the part of the students. In regard to the appointment and reception of the

matron, the committee are of opinion that needful changes were introduced without sufficient consultation and preparation, and that some details were unduly insisted upon. The matron was not personally introduced to the staff. She was apparently authorised to frame rules on which the staff were not consulted, but which, in their opinion, affected (though unintentionally on the part of either treasurer or matron) the medical treatment of the patients. The matron herself understood that no further authority than that of the treasurer was required, and he, on his part, was under the impression that the changes contemplated would be acceptable to the medical staff. The committee were firmly convinced that the treasurer, the medical staff, and the matron had had the same object in view—*viz.*, to promote the good of the hospital and the comfort of the patients—and they saw no reason for calling upon the matron to resign. The report is signed by Mr. H. H. Gibbs, Mr. C. Barclay, Sir Trevor Lawrence, M.P., Mr. R. M. Harvey, Mr. J. A. Shaw Stewart, Sir T. D. Acland, M.P., and Mr. S. Hoare (chairman).

22. A Grand Durbar held at Cabul, at which Abdul Rahman was formally recognised on behalf of the British Government as Ameer of Afghanistan : Abdul Rahman himself was not present.

— The convicts at Civita Vecchia, 1,500 in number, mutinied ; alleging that their rations were bad and insufficient. They overpowered the warders and tried to break loose ; but the troops were called out and restored order after killing three and seriously wounding seven of the convicts.

— The grandest private entertainment of the kind which has been seen in recent years given at Kensington House by eighty-four gentlemen, whose invitations were issued "to have the honour of meeting their Royal Highnesses the Prince and Princess of Wales" at "a Bachelors' Ball." The great advantage which a place like Kensington House possesses over private houses for an occasion of this kind was abundantly manifested. The grounds, with Chinese lanterns festooned among the trees and lighted gondolas moving on the lakes, offered a beautiful spectacle. The front of the house and the interior were lighted up with gas ; the top of the house with the electric-light ; the lime-light threw its rays upon the terrace ; the soft light of little oil-lamps glowed among the trees. The Prince and Princess of Wales arrived at ten minutes to 12. The Prince and Princess Christian and the Duke and Duchess of Teck were also present, and the Duke of Cambridge was among the earliest arrivals. In addition to the members of the Royal Family, about 1,500 guests of the highest distinction in London society, including most of the *Corps Diplomatique*, were present. The extent of the decorations may be gathered from the fact that 20,000 variegated lamps and 10,000 lanterns were used. Rockets were sent up, magnesium balloons ascended, a grand set piece went off with "lights that out-burnt Canopus." Supper was spread in rooms giving on the terrace.

23. At the meeting of the Metropolitan Board of Works, the condition of the metropolitan bridges recently freed from tolls was considered ; and it was resolved to deepen the foundations of Waterloo Bridge at a cost of 40,000*l.* ; to deepen the channel and enlarge the span of Vauxhall Bridge, 45,000*l.* ; to rebuild Battersea Bridge, 250,000*l.* ; to repair Wandsworth Bridge, 5,000*l.* ; to rebuild Putney Bridge and improve the approaches, 300,000*l.* ; and to reconstruct Deptford Creek Bridge, 20,000*l.*

— In some gambling at the Yacht Club, St. Petersburg, the losses during

a few days amounted to fifteen millions of francs. The stakes played for were never less than 150*l*. The loser of eight millions of francs was Prince Demidoff; the same whose sale of the collections at San Donato drew lately together so many of the art-connoisseurs of the world. The winner was Colonel Count Schouvaloff, a connection of the late Russian Ambassador in England. Count Loris Melikoff proposing to close the club, some of the Imperial family intervened, and the Czar contented himself with summoning the winner before him, and, having inquired into the whole matter, bade him be satisfied with one million francs (40,000*l*.) and give the loser a complete discharge for the rest.

24. The Jockey Club overruled an objection raised to Bend Or, the winner of the Derby, on the ground of misdescription.

— A pleasure-boat, containing two gentlemen, their wives and two children, run into by a steam-launch on the Thames, between Chertsey and Shepperton. The boat was cut into, and only the men escaped.

— Two amateur bicyclists, Messrs. H. Blackwell and Charles Harman, who had left the Land's End, on 13th inst., reached John O'Groats; having performed the distance, above 900 miles, in less than thirteen days, making an average of seventy miles a day.

— During the performance of the "Huguenots" at the Melbourne Opera House, Mr. J. McGregor Greer shot his wife and M. Soudry, French Commissioner to the Exhibition, and afterwards himself. He entered the box where the two were seated, and drawing a six-chambered revolver fired first at M. Soudry, who received the ball in his cheek, but escaped with only a flesh-wound. He then fired at his wife, the bullet entering below the left ear and passing through the muscles of the neck. Greer then shot himself in the left side of the head, fracturing the skull, and died shortly after his removal to the hospital. Mrs. Greer eventually recovered. The cause was jealousy; the three had only arrived in the colony a short time previously; the Greers had been recently married, and made the acquaintance of M. Soudry on the outward voyage.

— The Wimbledon Meeting of the National Rifle Association closed with the presentation of prizes to the winners by H.R.H. the Princess of Wales. The following were the principal events of the Meeting.

		Points.
Queen's Prize.	First stage: seven shots each, 200, 500, and 600 yds. Martini-Henry. Corporal Scott, 4th Cheshire	102
„	Final stage: seven shots each, 800, 900, and 1,000 yds. Martini-Henry. Private Ferguson, 1st Argyll	74
Alfred Prizes.	Seven shots, 200 yds. Snider. 1st Prize, Private Whitelaw, 1st Lanark	34
Daily Telegraph Prize.	Seven shots, 200 yds. Snider. 1st Prize, Col.-Serg. Symons, 1st Guernsey Militia	34
St. George's Vase.	Seven shots, 500 yds. Snider. Corporal King, 3rd Wilts	35
Glen Albyn Prize.	Seven shots, 200 yds. Snider. Peter Mackenzie, 1st Forfar	35
Windmill Prize.	Seven shots, 500 yds. Snider. Quartermaster Curtis, 2nd Sussex	35

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	Points.
Alexandra Prizes. Seven shots each, 500 and 600 yds. Snider. 1st Prize, Sergeant Bartlett, 1st Hants Artillery . . .	66
Prince of Wales's Prize. Seven shots each, 200, 500 and 600 yds. Snider. 1st Prize, Captain Hull, 23rd Foot. (Restricted to silver & bronze medallists of N.R.A.)	93
Martin Prize. Seven shots, 600 yds. Snider. Corporal Milroy, 1st Roxburgh. (Restricted to efficient volunteers.)	34
Snider Association Cup. Seven shots, 200 yds. Snider. Corporal Taylor, 1st Stirling	35
Albert Prize. First stage : Fifteen shots, 600 and 900 yds. Any rifle. Scott, U.S.A.	118

Open to All Comers.

Secretary of State for War's Prizes. Seven shots, 900 yds. Any breech-loader. Private Humphrey, Camb. University, Sergeant Gratwick, 1st Exeter ¹	34 34
Halford Prize. Ten shots, 1,000 yds. Any rifle. Only bull's-eyes to count. Captain Fenton, 77th Foot	49
Army and Navy Prize. Seven shots, 200 and 500 yds. Martini-Henry. S. M. Johnson, R.E.	64

Matches.

Vizianagram Cup.	200 yds.	500 yds.	
Lords and Commons. } Ten shots each, 200 and 500 yds. Any rifle. Six a-side.	249	+	234 = . 483
	262	+	226 = . 488
China Cup.			
County Tens. Seven shots each, 500 yds. Snider. Lancashire			400
Kolapore Cup. Eight men, seven shots each, 200, 500, 600 yds. Snider. Mother Country			639
Dominion of Canada			566
Cambridge and Oxford. } Eight men, seven shots each, 200, 500, and 600 yds.			603
			506
Ashburton Challenge Shield.			
Eight boys from Public Schools. Seven shots each, 200 and 500 yds. Snider. Eton			429
Elcho Shield.			
Eight men, fifteen shots each, 800, 900, and 1,000 yds. Any rifle. Ireland			1638
England			1637
Scotland			1523

25. A steamer foundered in a squall on the Lake of Bienne, in Switzerland, and sixteen persons, who were in the cabin, drowned ; the boat going down in 300 fathoms of water. The cause of the squall was attributed to the sudden meeting of the *fohn* and the *bise*—the hot and the cold winds which blow from the mountains across the lake.

27. In the House of Commons, by a narrow majority of seventeen, in a division in which nearly 300 members voted, the Bill promoted by the Metropolitan and District Railway Companies for the completion of the Inner Circle, was rejected on the motion of Alderman Lawrence. The promoters asked for leave to burrow under the foundations of some of the richest property in the City of London, lying between the Mansion House and Aldgate stations, without purchasing the properties above.

— An entire brigade of about 3,000 men, under General Burrows, attacked and dispersed by the Afghans, under Ayoob Khan, on the banks of the Helmund, near Candahar. Two guns were lost, and the 66th Regiment, which suffered severely, had 282 men killed, and the 1st Bombay Native Infantry (the Grenadiers), 365.

— The American sail-boat, "Little Western"—length 16 feet 7 inches, beam 6 feet 7 inches, and depth 2 feet 6 inches—reached Cowes, from Gloucester, Massachusetts, having been forty-three days from land to land. Her crew consisted of two men only, who reported that, beyond shipping a sea which nearly capsized the boat two days before reaching the English coast, the voyage passed without accident.

28. A conference, under the presidency of Herr Bitter, opened at the Castle of Coburg, between the Ministers of Finance of the different German States, with the view of suggesting improved means of raising the revenues of the German Empire.

— The colours of the 24th Regiment, which were temporarily lost after the Battle of Isandlana, but afterwards recovered from the Zulus, were by desire of the Queen brought to Osborne by the officers in charge. The party was received by the Queen in person, who, after speaking of the bravery of the regiment and the trials it had passed through in South Africa, decorated the colours with a wreath.

— The Steward's Cup at Goodwood, won by Mr. Crawford's Elf-King, by Jorkin—Queen Mab, 4 yrs., 7 st. 8 lbs. (Fordham); defeating a field of twenty-eight runners, and Lord Hastings' Hackthorpe, the favourite, by a head. Time, 1 min. 26 sec.: distance, $\frac{3}{4}$ mile.

29. The long bridge over the Volga, on the Syoran and Orenberg Railway, connecting the cities of Syoran, in the government of Simbriak, with that of Samara, completed. The width of the river is nearly a mile, and as it is liable to the occurrence of very heavy spring floods, the piers (of which there are fourteen altogether) had to be built 100 ft. above mean water level, the depth of the river being more than 50 ft. The girders, 364 ft. long, and 20 ft. wide, were all riveted and put together on the right bank of the river, and then floated to their position. The whole cost of the bridge was 7,000,000 silver roubles, and it is worthy of mention that it was completed without any loss of life or any accident of importance.

— The race for the Goodwood Cup proved a mere match between Mr. C. Perkins's Dresden China, by Highborn—Faultless, 4 yrs., 8 st. 7 lbs., and Lord Bradford's Chippendale, 4 yrs., 8 st. 10 lbs., and was won by the former, the non-favourite, in a canter, by three-quarters of a length. Time, 6 min. 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ sec. Distance, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

— The Rev. W. J. E. Bennett, Vicar of Frome-Selwood, appointed chairman of the provisional committee of a society for removing the Bishops from the House of Lords.

30. Right Hon. George Dodson, President of the Local Government, whose election at Chester had been declared void, elected for Scarborough by 1,828 votes to 1,606 given to his Conservative opponent, Mr. Duncombe.

— The third election within four months for the Wigtown Burghs resulted in the return of Admiral Sir J. C. Dalrymple-Hay by 636 votes against 620 given to Mr. McMicking, the Liberal candidate. At the General Election the numbers were—McLaren (L.) 650 ; Stewart (C.) 638. At the bye-election, consequent on Mr. McLaren's accepting office as Lord Advocate, the numbers were—Stewart (C.) 656 ; McLaren (L.) 633. Mr. Stewart's election, on petition, was declared to be void.

— A deputation from the British Medical and the Medical Reform Associations had an interview with the Lord President of the Council (Earl Spencer) and the Vice-President (Mr. Mundella) to urge the Government to introduce a Bill giving the medical profession larger representation on the Medical Council, a Joint Board of Examination for Medical Proficiency, and Educational Reform in Medical and Physical Science.

— The Chesterfield Cup at Goodwood won by Mr. H. Bragg's Victor Emmanuel, 3 years, 6st. 7lbs., by a length. Fifteen started. Time : 2 min. 23 sec. 1½ mile.

— Mr. Gladstone, on returning from the House of Commons, taken ill ; a slight congestion of the lungs, on which fever supervened, having declared itself, necessitating his absolute withdrawal from all business for a time. The interest shown by the public of all classes during the course of his illness was intense.

31. The Czar of Russia stated to have been married privately (July 19, Old Style) to the Princess Dolgorouki in the chapel of the palace of St. Petersburg. Among the few witnesses present were the Grand Duke Nicholas and the ministers ; the other members of the Imperial family testifying their disapproval by their absence.

— The train which conveyed the Lord Mayor and suite to Scarborough to inaugurate the new pier performed the journey from London to York in 3 hours 37½ minutes, including ten minutes' stoppage at Grantham. The distance to Grantham, 105 miles, was run at an average rate of 52½ miles per hour ; from Grantham to Newark at 59 miles per hour ; from Grantham to York at 57. The 59 miles between Clayhole and Selby were run in 60½ minutes.

— The Heligoland telegraph cable having ceased to work, inquiry as to the cause was at once set on foot, which resulted in showing that in the course of the previous night the anchor of a German ship became entangled in the cable. The Captain, mistaking it for a rope from a wreck, dragged it along for several hours, and ultimately cut it.

AUGUST.

1. The Departmental Election of Councillors in France took place, resulting in the return of 927 Republicans and 374 Reactionaries ; whilst second ballots were requisite in 129 cases. The outgoing councillors were divided into 719 Republicans and 712 Reactionaries, the result being that,

on an average throughout the country, of the councillors, who elect a certain number of the Senate, the Republicans are almost in the proportion of two to one to the Monarchists, Imperialists, and other types of Conservatives.

2. The concession for the preliminary works of the Channel Tunnel, originally granted for five years in 1875, renewed by the French Government for three years. The decree recites that the prescribed soundings and borings have been duly executed, and that further investigations are requisite to pave the way for the success of the enterprise.

— The Civil Tribunal of the Seine annulled a marriage solemnized at a London register office in 1876 between Alfred Dessaint, then 17 years of age, and a Miss Brewster. Young Dessaint disappeared from home in 1875, and his father heard nothing of him till four years afterwards, when he received a postcard from him imploring forgiveness. Invited home, he revealed the fact that he was married and had two children. He had represented his age to the registrar as 22. The Court annulled the marriage, on the ground of the absence of the parents' consent and incapacity as to age.

— A mason, aged 26, condemned to four years' imprisonment at Cusano, starved himself to death. From the day of his sentence he refused to take food, and no compulsion being resorted to, he died at the end of thirty days. His funeral was purely civil, the priests considering him a suicide.

— The San Domingo Government presented to the town of Pavia a handful of the remains of Columbus, consisting of small fragments of bones and dust enclosed in a glass ball and sealed by the Archbishop, whose secretary was the bearer of the relic. It has been deposited in the University library.

3. An analysis of the vote given in the House of Lords on the Compensation for Disturbance (Ireland) Bill, which was rejected by 282 contents against 51 non-contents, showed the following results :—Two dukes (Devonshire and Westminster) supported the Government, as did one marquess (Northampton) and one bishop (Ely), whilst Earl Grey's amendment was supported by the Archbishop of Canterbury, 12 dukes and 11 marquesses, 3 bishops. The Liberal peers who voted against the bill were sufficiently strong to have rejected it, even had not a single Conservative vote been given. There were in the majority no fewer than 58 peers classed as Liberals and 12 who sit on the cross benches. A noteworthy fact is that Lord Sherbrooke and Lord Brabourne (better known as Mr. Robert Lowe and Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen) both opposed the bill, as did the following Liberal peers :—The Archbishop of Canterbury, the Duke of Grafton, the Duke of Somerset, the Marquesses of Ailesbury and Lansdowne, the Earls of Airlie, Camperdown, Clarendon, Craven, Dartrey, Durham, Fitzwilliam, Fortescue, Ilchester, Dunraven, Gosford, Love/ace, Minto, Normanton, Stair, Somers, Suffolk and Berkshire, Zetland, Carysfort, Granard, Listowel, and Clancarty, the Bishop of St. David's, Lords Annaly, Ashburton, Braye, Calthorpe, Carew, Clermont, Congleton, Dacre, De Freyne, De Mauley, Dormer, Fitzhardinge, Foley, Keane, Londesborough, Lovat, Lyveden, Penzance, Romilly, Sandys, Stratheden and Campbell, Suffield, Talbot de Malahide, Vaux of Harrowden, Vernon, Wentworth, and the Marquesses of Sligo and Clanricarde. The following lords, who are classed as sitting on the cross-benches, voted against the bill :—The Duke of Sutherland, the Earls of Cathcart, Grey, Morton, St. Germans, Shaftesbury, Lords Blantyre, Cottesloe, Plunket, Stanley of Alderley, and Vivian. The following were

among the Liberal peers who were absent :—The Archbishop of York, Dukes of Bedford, Cleveland, and St. Albans ; Marquesses—Cholmondeley, Huntly, Normanby, and Townshend ; Earls—Abingdon, Berkeley, Buckinghamshire, Caithness, Carlisle, Chichester, Cottenham, Ducie, Dudley, Effingham, Erroll, Fingal, Leicester, Lichfield, Moray, Munster, Rosebery, Scarborough, Sheffield, Southesk, and Yarborough ; Viscounts—Canterbury, Cardwell, Eversley, Falmouth, Falkland, Halifax, and Portman ; 15 Liberal bishops ; Lords—Abercromby, Acton, Auckland, Belper, Blachford, Brougham and Vaux, Camoys, Carlingford, Castletown, Churchill, Clifford of Chudleigh, de Clifford, de Tabley, Dorchester, Rollo, Ebury, Napier and Ettrick, Gardner, Greville, Gwydir, Hanmer, Hatherton, Howard of Glossop, Kinnaird, Lanerton, Lurgan, Moncrieff, Overstone, Petre, Seaton, Stafford, Teynham, Thurlow, Truro, Wenlock. The Duke of Cambridge was present during the debate, but did not vote. The following peers were unavoidably prevented from voting against the second reading :—Lord Erskine, the Earl of Dartmouth, the Marquis of Donegal, the Earl of Leven and Melville, Lord Henniker, Lord Braybrooke, the Earl of Stamford, the Earl of Essex, Lord Forrester, Lord Raglan, the Earl of Hume, the Earl of Carnarvon, and Lord Mowbray and Stourton. The Duke of Roxburgh paired in favour of the second reading.

— The Queen's Cup at the Royal Yacht Squadron Regatta won by the Prince of Wales's cutter "Formosa," 102 tons (sailing at 172), defeating three other competitors, all schooners, the "Waterwitch" (160 tons), the "Egeria" (157), and the "Enchantress" (346).

— At the annual session of the Wesleyan Conference, the reports showed that during the past year 126 chapels had been erected at the cost of 216,415*l.* ; 13 ministers' houses, 11,988*l.* ; 20 schoolrooms, 17,658*l.* ; 96 alterations or enlargements, 58,256*l.* ; 42 organs, 13,858*l.*

4. According to a report issued by the Holy Synod, there are in Russia, besides the cathedrals, 35,000 churches, of which 30,000 have parishes attached to them. The services are conducted by 37,718 priests, 11,857 deacons, and 65,951 church servants or attendants. The state contributes 4,384,312 roubles to the support of 17,667 churches, and about a million more in contributions as church aids.

— Mr. Parsons, the American missionary at Constantinople, who in company with an Armenian servant, was making a professional tour in the mountains to the east of Ismid, camped out by the roadside in the vicinity of some Zuruks, a pastoral, semi-nomadic tribe, who are met with in various districts of the vilayet of Broussa. Two Zuruk shepherds, who have since been arrested, confessed, with cynical composure, that they shot the two travellers as they lay asleep, and robbed them of their money, amounting to less than 1*l.* sterling. According to their own account of the affair, they determined at first simply to rob the travellers, but on mature reflection, and remembering that they were only Giaours, they resolved to kill them. As Mr. Parsons did not reach his destination at the expected time, and as his horses were found wandering about the hills, his friends caused a search to be made, and the two bodies were discovered under some bushes, near the spot where the crime was committed. The authorities, on hearing that a despatch on the subject had been sent to the British Embassy, showed more than their usual zeal on such occasions, and, by threatening a wholesale

arrest, induced the Zuruks to give up the criminals, who, as soon as they found themselves in prison, made a full confession.

— The Royal Yacht Squadron Cup at Cowes, for which three cutters and three yawls started, won by time, by Mr. Jameson's cutter, "Samoena" (95 tons), although she arrived third; the first being Mr. A. B. Rowley's yawl, "Latona" (163 tons), and the second Mr. W. Jessop's "Florinda" (137 tons).

5. In the House of Commons, Mr. Bourke made a personal statement in reference to Mr. Gladstone's charge against the late Government of suppressing the fact that the jealousy felt by the Great Powers at the Anglo-Turkish Convention had been put upon record by France. As a matter of fact, he said, no jealousy had been expressed by the Great Powers; and, though France had expressed uneasiness, that feeling was entirely removed by explanations given by Lord Salisbury to M. Waddington at Berlin. As to the charge of concealment, he pointed out that on August 15, 1878, the day before the prorogation, he laid on the table despatches, dated July 7, July 21, and August 7, in which the history of this point was fully related; and though they were not actually printed until November, that occurred in due course, and was not the fault of the Foreign Office. Sir C. Dilke, who made, as he said, a personal explanation on behalf of Mr. Gladstone, contended that his description of the affair was strictly accurate, and relied not so much on the delay in publishing the despatches (though he believed that the confidential despatches not published would strengthen his case) as on the speeches of Mr. Cross, Lord Sandon, and other Ministers in the debate on the Berlin Treaty at the end of July. Though pressed to say whether the treaty had not roused foreign jealousy, they all denied it, and Lord John Manners in particular gave the suggestion an unqualified denial, and asserted that not a cloud had arisen between the two countries. Lord John Manners said the Under-Secretary had not been courteous enough to give him the opportunity of refreshing his memory as to what he said then, but, speaking from recollection, he asserted that he was quite accurate, and he adhered to his statement that at the time he spoke there was no cloud between the two Governments. As a proof of that, he mentioned the difficult and delicate Egyptian negotiations which were brought soon after to a successful termination.

— An international Congress on alcoholic drinks held at Brussels and attended by lay and medical adherents of temperance from most of the European States. As one result of the Congress it appeared that on the Continent there were scarcely any total abstainers from alcoholic drinks.

6. The election at Liverpool of a member to fill Lord Ramsay's vacancy gave rise to a contest between Mr. Plimsoll (Liberal) and Lord Claude Hamilton (Conservative). The latter polled 21,019 votes, defeating his opponent by 1,901 votes.

— Owing to a continuance of heavy rains in the region of the Carpathians the Oder overflowed its banks at many places between Kosel and Ratibor, reaching the railway lines and interrupting communication between Vienna, Prague, and Breslau.

— Official tables connected with the production of beer in all the European countries and the United States issued under the authority of the Austrian Government. The following is a summary of the production during 1879:—The whole German Empire produced 23,811,117 British

barrels ; Great Britain, 22,375,010 barrels ; the United States of North America, 9,425,252 ; Austria-Hungary, 6,838,090 ; France, 5,831,845 ; Belgium, 4,801,778 ; Russia, 1,406,174 ; the Netherlands, 978,208 ; Denmark, 672,518 ; Sweden, 568,583 ; Italy, 531,900 ; Switzerland, 448,753 ; Norway, 376,000 barrels. The greatest production in proportion to the population is in Belgium, where 167 litres, or a little over 34½ gallons per head, were manufactured ; and the smallest production was in Russia, where the ratio was only 3 litres, or a little more than 5½ pints for every inhabitant.

7. A nurse at Guy's Hospital convicted of having caused the death of a patient through culpable negligence, sentenced at the Central Criminal Court to three months' imprisonment. The jury in returning their verdict expressed their opinion that there was evidence of great negligence in the nursing system pursued in the hospital, and great need of more careful supervision.

— Dr. Tanner, an 'eclectic' physician of New York, successfully completed his forty days of fasting. During that time he had drunk 667½ ounces of water, and lost thirty-six pounds in weight. His respirations had varied from thirteen to eighteen, his muscular pressure from 194 to 158. At noon when the steam whistle blew to denote that the fast was over, Dr. Tanner jumped on a chair and swallowed a peach. He was then weighed and found to scale 120½ lbs. His pulse was 92 and respiration 17. He then drank a glass of milk, and called for a water melon of which he ate several slices, rejecting the peel. A little later he took an ounce of Hungarian wine, followed by half a pound of beef-steak, then an apple, and a little after another half-pound of steak and an ounce more wine. His stomach retained all the food he had taken, and he suffered no nausea.

— Twenty-four competitors started in a swimming match from Putney Bridge to Charing Cross. W. R. Itter was the winner, beating W. Richardson of Dublin by 25 yards, in 1 hr. 17 min. 38 sec.

8. Mr. Charles Boyd, an undergraduate of Trinity College, Dublin, while driving with his father in the neighbourhood of New Ross, shot by men disguised as mummies. Four tenants of his father were arrested on suspicion, but no motive for the outrage could be discovered.

— The Presidents of the French Republic (M. Grévy), the Senate (M. Léon Say), and of the Chamber of Deputies (M. Gambetta), arrived at Cherbourg to inspect the fleet and breakwater, and to launch a new cruiser.

9. The following preliminary report of the scientific researches made in the Bay of Biscay by M. A. Milne-Edwards:—"The 103 soundings taken from the foot of Cape Breton to Cape Venas give an accurate idea of the configuration of the sea in this region, which seems to continue under water our Pyrenean range. A short distance from the coast depths of 3,000 mètres have been discovered. The existence has been ascertained of abrupt slopes of almost vertical rifts, especially north of Cape Santander and Cape Machichace, and these sudden differences of level often interfered with our dredgings. To the west, on the contrary, between Tina Mayor and Cape Penas, there exists a plateau, which we have named Plateau du Travailleur (the Travailleur being the exploring vessel), which is only covered by about 170 mètres of water. Its levelness contrasts with the uneven region situated more to the east, and this latter is connected with the foot of Cape Breton by

a series of undulations. This hydrographic investigation will be very interesting to geologists."

10. A meeting between the Emperors of Germany and Austria took place at Ischl, the former remaining as the guest of the latter at that place.

— The "Flying Scotchman" of the Great Northern Railway, on its way from Edinburgh to London, ran off the lines near Berwick-on-Tweed, wrecking the train, killing the engine-driver and two of the company's servants, and shaking and wounding the passengers. The engine left the line from some unexplained cause, but happily parted from the tender, though both tender and carriages were thrown off the metals.

— The captain of the pilgrim ship "Jeddah" arrived at Aden, on board the "Scindia," and reported that his vessel had foundered off Gardafui. The "Jeddah," however, arrived at Aden, in tow of the steamer "Antenor," the next day. The boilers having moved, there was some water in the ship. The cargo was apparently, however, little damaged. The second mate and ten natives were reported lost. The captain's certificate was, after an inquiry, suspended for three years.

11. A terrible accident befell the express train from Leeds to Morecambe on the Midland Railway. The train is timed to leave Leeds at 12.15, and to reach Morecambe at 2.35. It arrived at Bentham, having made the usual stoppages, at 1.47, and having put down a few passengers, proceeded on its way, passing through the next station, Wennington Junction, about 11 miles from Lancaster. Just after it had passed this station it ran off the line. Two of the carriages were smashed to pieces. It was found that seven persons had been killed and nine or ten injured. The train was running at a speed of about 35 miles an hour, and on passing the junction, where the line diverged, the engine struck the facing points. The engine ploughed along the line dragging the carriages along with it until they came to a bridge, when the carriage next to the engine caught the buttress of the bridge, and was smashed to pieces, the following carriage telescoping into it.

— A robbery of arms effected from a Norwegian ship, named the "Juno," lying at Passage West Docks, Cork. The cargo of the vessel consisted of iron rails, ore, and 40 cases of arms, containing 24 weapons each. She was bound from Antwerp for New York, and put in at Cork for repairs. The captain and his wife, a Revenue officer, and a crew were on board between 1 and 2 o'clock, when five or six boats, containing altogether about 40 men, came alongside. The Revenue officer was on watch on the deck, and the first batch of men that came on board took him to the captain's room and shut him up there, saying they did not want to interfere with anyone on board. The captain and the Revenue officer were thus shut up, and unable to interfere with anything that went on. In the course of half an hour the men left the ship, as they had come, in boats, taking the direction of Marina, from which they turned and proceeded down the river. An examination of the hold being made, it was found that 42 guns had been removed—that is, one case containing 24, and 18 taken out of another case. The most remarkable circumstance connected with the affair is that while the boats were leaving and still in view of the vessel, no alarm was given by the captain or the Revenue officer, both of whom described the route taken by the boats. At the time the robbery was being committed the Passage patrol was on the road outside the dock wall, not more than 25 yards from the side of the ship, and the slightest alarm would have reached them. It was also found that the

wire on the railway at Horsehead was cut in two places, the object, of course, being to prevent the outrage being reported at Cork. About 3 o'clock in the morning information of the occurrence was communicated to the Passag police, and in the course of the morning they made six arrests, all of young men who, they said, belonged to Cork. The crew of the "Juno" consisted of 23 men, who were asleep when the boarders arrived, and were at once battened down. Twenty of the guns were subsequently recovered, but the police failed to obtain any satisfactory clue with which to connect the men arrested with the robbery.

12. The following statistics of the American census taken on 1st June published by authority. They show the present population of the principal cities as well as their comparative rates of increase since the previous census in 1870 :—

	Population.	Increase per cent. since 1870.
New York	1,209,561	24
Philadelphia	842,000	24
Brooklyn	554,693	40
Chicago	477,500	60
St. Louis	375,000	21
Boston	352,000	40
Baltimore	330,000	23
Cincinnati	255,000	19
San Francisco	227,350	51
New Orleans	207,328	8
Washington	160,000	45
Cleveland	157,000	71
Buffalo	149,000	27
Newark	136,000	30
Milwaukee	130,000	92
Detroit	119,000	50
Louisville	112,000	11
Providence	104,000	52

The returns from Pittsburg and Jersey City have not yet been completed. Chicago, Cleveland, and Milwaukee stand at the head as far as relative increase goes, and betoken the success of the grain and oil-refining trades. At the same time, the rate of increase of many smaller towns is very much larger than these. For instance, Minneapolis, another great milling and lumber centre, shows 244 per cent. ; Atlanta (a railway centre in Georgia), 106 per cent. ; Waterbury (the watchmaking city of Connecticut), 102 ; St. Paul, near Minneapolis, 100 ; and Denver, in Colorado, the astounding rate of 614 per cent. On the whole, however, it appears that the wave of increase and prosperity has fallen pretty equally on the States alike, while New York has gone so steadily ahead that the increase of her population has, in a single decade, outnumbered the total population of New Orleans and San Francisco.

— The majority in the House of Commons in favour of the second reading of the Burials Bill, including tellers, was composed of 198 English and Welsh, 34 Scotch, and 28 Irish members ; and the minority of 79 English and two Irish members. There was therefore a majority of 119 English and Welsh votes in favour of the Bill. It was supported by eight English, five Scotch, and three Irish Conservatives—16 in all ; while not a single Liberal voted against it. Although the majority (179) is 68 larger than was ever obtained for Mr. Morgan's Bill (111 in 1870), in consequence of a large number of members having left town, the number voting for the Bill was

not equal to that in 1873, when Mr. Morgan's Bill was supported by 280 members. The majorities have fluctuated considerably during the last ten years. In the Parliament of 1868-74 Mr. Morgan's majority was as high as 111 and as low as 62, while in the Parliament of 1874-80, when the Conservatives were in power, Mr. Morgan was beaten by majorities of 14, 33, and 15. The largest number of votes recorded against the principle of the Burials Bill was 279, in 1876, the smallest number is that of Thursday's division—viz., 79, or a falling off of exactly 200.

13. The Hungarian paper *Somegy* reported that the ibis had settled down in great numbers on the thickly-wooded shores of the Plattensee (Lake Balaton), to the great surprise and delight of the sportsmen of the neighbourhood, most of whom had never before seen their novel visitor. The bird has a long beak, bright steel-coloured feathers, and resembles the snipe in its habits. Its flesh is savoury. They build their nests of dry twigs, or of peat and reeds; setting them in long rows close to one another, and in a line as straight as if it had been laid down by an engineer. Towards evening they flock together, like wild duck, in great numbers; and they are generally shot by the sportsmen as they alight. The eggs are nearly as large as duck-eggs, and of a bright sky-blue colour.

— At the Royal Victoria Yacht Club Regatta, the Commodore's prize open to all yachts belonging to a Royal Yacht Club, brought seventeen competitors, of which Mr. C. S. Thellusson's schooner, "*Boadicea*" (364 tons), was the largest, and Mr. W. Fitzherbert's cutter, "*Wraith*" (38 tons), was the smallest. The course was round the Isle of Wight, and the winner was Mr. A. B. Rowley's yacht, "*Latona*" (160 tons), which won in 6 hours, 37½ minutes.

— The Rev. Henry Wright of Hampstead, and his two sons, aged 20 and 18, all good swimmers, went to bathe in Coniston Lake before breakfast. Leaving home a little after 7, they rowed into deep water, and having undressed, dived from the side of the boat, which they left to drift, swimming with it for some distance. The younger son noticed that his father was in difficulties, and at once swam to his assistance. He was soon joined by his elder brother, who then supported his father and told his younger brother to fetch the boat. This the young man proceeded to do, but on turning round he noticed that both the swimmers had disappeared. The elder son soon rose again, but the father did not. Mr. Wright had been seized with violent cramp, and, finding that unless his son let go they must both be drowned, told his son to let him go, when he sank in about 100 feet of water.

14. The topmost flower affixed to the last of the two spires of Cologne Cathedral, thereby completing the work of which the foundation stone had been laid on August 14, 1248. The actual building commenced in 1257 under the direction of one Gerhard of Riehl, a village near Cologne, who is supposed to have been also the architect. In 1322 a portion of the building was consecrated, but the work prospered but slowly, and it was not until 1499 that the nave and aisles were covered with a temporary roof. In 1508 the stained glass windows which still exist were inserted, but from this date all work seems to have been suspended for many generations. After the close of the wars with Napoleon, German patriotism was aroused on behalf of the building, and in 1823, Friedrich Wilhelm III. instructed Ahlert to undertake its restoration. Ten years later, Ernst Zwirner succeeded to the

post of architect, and the plans of the old building, which had been discovered in the loft of an old inn in 1816, were carefully adopted. In 1840 the Don Bau Gesellschaft was established under the patronage of the new King Friedrich Wilhelm IV., and money was collected in a systematic manner from all quarters. The south portal was finished in 1849, and the northern spire commenced in 1850. In 1861 Herr Voigtel succeeded to the post of director of the works, and under his management the works were at length brought to a conclusion. Since 1823 it is estimated that 900,000*l.* had been raised from public and private sources and expended on the building, the total cost of which is roughly estimated at about two millions sterling. The towers are now the highest of any edifice in the world, exceeding by nearly 20 feet the spire of St. Nicholas' Church at Hamburg, and by still more St. Peter's at Rome, Strasburg Cathedral and the pyramid of Cheops.

15. The trial before military judges of the undermentioned 21 members of the Extreme or Terrorist section of Nihilists commenced at Kieff on the 27th of last month, concluded as follows:—(1) Michael Popoff, aged 22, hereditary honorary citizen, and (2) Igniaty Ivanoff, 22, ranking as a gentleman, to be hanged. (3) Fedor Yoorkovsky (*alias* "Engineer Sashka"), 22, gentleman; (4) Sergay (Sergius) Deekovsky, 23, son of an Orthodox priest; and (5) Dmitry Bootzinsky, 25, ditto, sentenced to 20 years' hard labour in the mines. (6) Moësay (Moses) Deekovsky, 23, twin-brother of the above mentioned Sergay; (7) Sevastian Ilyashenko-Kootzenko, 23, peasant; (8) Neekeefor Levtschenko, 22, townsman or small tradesman; (9) Philip Michaeloff (*alias* Boëtchenko), 27, peasant; (10) Nicholas Khroostcheff (*alias* Troësky), 22, townsman; (11) Shaëff Shekter, 25, Jewish townswoman or *bourgeoise*; (12) Victoria Levenson, 26, gentlewoman; (13) Bolealav Kosstetack, 24, an Austrian subject with the rank of gentleman; (14) Nicholas Petrov, 29, gentleman; (15) Fanny Refert, 22, a Jewish townswoman; (16) Michael Klimenko, 24, gentleman; (17) Nicholas Podrevsky, 25, son of a Tcheenonik, or Government *employé*; and (18) Solomon Lotringher, 26, an Austrian subject of the Hebrew faith, sentenced to 15 years' hard labour in the mine. (19) Pavel Lozyanov, 20, son of a deacon in the Russian Church to 13 years and four months' ditto; and (20) Vladimir Zhookoff, 20, gentleman, and (21) Venyamin (Benjamin) Pozen, 18, a Jewish townsman, to ten years' ditto. At the same time the Court, conceiving there were extenuating circumstances in the cases of the undermentioned accused, appended to its finding a recommendation to General Tchortkoff, Governor-General of Kieff when considering it for the purpose of confirming it, to commute the sentences—of Zhookoff and Pozen to seven years' hard labour in a Government or penal factory, of Shekter and Levenson to six years' ditto, and of Kosstetack, Petroff, and Refert to four years' ditto; those of Klimenko and Podrevsky to perpetual banishment, as colonists to Siberia; and that of Lotringher to four months' simple imprisonment. This recommendation on behalf of the latter three was due to its not having been proved that they belonged to any secret society. Hence the Court deemed the lighter punishments would be sufficient for their having been cognizant of the illegal proceedings of the other accused, and yet not informing the authorities thereof. In addition to these punishments, all the accused—as is usual in Nihilistic trials—were condemned to forfeit their civil rights, that is, to outlawry. All of them, with the exceptions above mentioned, were arraigned on the charge of being members of an illicit society for the overthrow of the

Russian Government. Eleven of their number had assumed false names and used forged passports ; and in the possession of some were found explosive substances, poisons, arms, a variety of tools and instruments—especially those used by “Engineer Sashka” in burrowing a passage to the vault of the Imperial Treasury at Kherson—and documents of a compromising character, &c. Seven or eight of the men had been students respectively of the Universities of Odessa, Kieff, or Kharkoff, and one of the now closed Veterinary School at the last-named town. Several of them told very frankly their reasons for joining the revolutionary circle at Kieff, and also stated at greater or less length, and in more than one instance with extraordinary coolness, their political views and aspirations. Sergay Deekovsky owned he was a Socialist, but not a member of the Terrorist faction, for he acknowledged government, religion, and the rights of property. His object had been to work in favour of the people’s liberties. He was taken into custody at a station on the Kieff railway, disguised as an artillery captain, although a university student at the time. Bootzinsky said he was a political revolutionist, but not a Socialist. Zhookoff was by conviction a Socialist, but denied being a member of any political society whatever. He was captured at Ismail in trying to escape abroad. But the two who spoke most fully concerning their political convictions were Popoff and Ivanoff. The latter averred “he was one of the people. His affection for their cause had begun to be felt while he was at the Gymnasium. But he had become an active partisan in their cause from the time he finished his University career in the Medical Faculty at Kieff.” His landlady, on being called to speak to his mode of life, replied, “She had never had a better behaved or more polite lodger, and that if she had a son she would pray to God that he might be as good as he.” At his lodging had been found some dynamite and a suspicious-looking machine. But he refused to show why he had them. He was also accused of the intention to offer armed resistance to the police. But this charge was considered not proved, for although he acknowledged to drawing a revolver from his pocket at the time of his capture, he did so for the purpose of self-destruction. This may have been so, for one of his own Nihilist friends had, on the 4th of last March, committed such an act. In fact, it was that which led to some of these persons being brought to trial. It seems that the Kieff revolutionary party had conceived a suspicion that one of their number, named Zabramsky, might turn traitor. It was therefore resolved to get rid of him. With this object he was taken at various times to different hotels and restaurants in Kieff, but something always intervened to prevent the consummation of the tragedy. At last a university student, named Polykarpoff, undertook to invite him to his room to dinner and there shoot him. Polykarpoff kept his word and immediately shot himself dead, whereas he had only wounded Zabramsky, who thereupon gave the authorities all the information he could. Returning to Popoff and Ivanoff, the extreme penalty was passed upon them as being two chiefs of the active or Terrorist party. The accused who attracted most interest, however, was Yoorkovsky (the Engineer “Sashka”), for it was he who conducted the engineering operations in connexion with the gigantic robbery last year at the Imperial Treasury of Kherson. This man belongs to a respectable family at Nicolaieff. His brother is editor of the *Nicolaieff Gazette*, and some of his relatives are officers in the Russian Navy. At the Nicolaieff Gymnasium he was a model pupil, and he appears to have always conducted himself so well as to

disarm all suspicion that he had anything to do with Nihilism. He energetically denied being a member of the Kieff revolutionary party, but openly avowed his participation in the Kherson robbery, and gave a very minute and graphic description of the whole affair. After the robbery he, with the aid of forged passports and part of the 16,000 and odd roubles, proceeds of the crime which have not been recovered, travelled about Russia. He visited Nicolaieff. He came to Odessa; he descended the Volga, and even got as far as Perm. But he grew tired of that manner of 'skipping about,' as he expresses it, and felt a desire for the intimate society of some one. Learning that a Captain Stakovsky, a landed proprietor in the government of Kieff, wished to sell his estate, Yoorkovsky went to that gentleman as a purchaser. He thus made his acquaintance, as well as that of his son. He went there three times, making a short stay on each occasion. During his visit a tragic event happened. Captain Stakovsky murdered his son and then committed suicide. This crime naturally brought the police to the spot, and chanced to Yoorkovsky's falling into their hands.

16. The Royal Commissioners appointed to inquire into the administration of Wellington College reported that the orphan sons of officers had not enjoyed the full amount of benefit intended for them in the original scheme of the College; but that a standard of education was given higher than that contemplated.

Mr. W. G. George, in a mile race against nine other amateurs at Stamford Bridge Grounds, Walham Green, accomplished the distance in the fastest time on record, viz., quarter of a mile, 59 sec.; half mile, 2 min. 4½ sec.; three-quarters of a mile, 3 min. 14 sec.; 1 mile, 4 min. 23½ sec. Previous to this the fastest amateur one mile champion had been Mr. Walter Slade, who had accomplished it in 4 min. 24½ sec.

17. The Comtesse de Tilly charged at the Poitiers Assizes with throwing vitriol in the face of her husband's mistress, Marie Maréchal, a seamstress, 24 years of age. Madame de Tilly was married in 1867, at the age of 20, and has had four children. Eighteen months ago her husband became enamoured of Marie Maréchal. He was in the habit of seeing her four times a day—thrice on her passing his house, when he used to watch for her and kiss his hand to her, and the fourth time when he went to fetch his children from school. He avowed also his intention of marrying her if his wife, whose health gave way under her trials, died. He is believed to have squandered at least 30,000 francs of his mother's property on his paramour, and he once, at least, received her under his own roof. Marie Maréchal, moreover, used to imitate the wife's dress, sneered at her in the streets, and became known as "la petite Comtesse." One of their children found at the foot of M. de Tilly's bed 13,000 francs in notes, part of the proceeds of a sale of his mother's property, and his conduct convinced the Countess that he intended eloping with his mistress, staying abroad till her own death, and then marrying her rival. Driven to desperation, she resolved that if this infatuation was due to the girl's beauty, she would at least destroy this and thus secure her children against such a stepmother. She accordingly bought some vitriol, telling the chemist it was for cleansing copper utensils. He warned her it was dangerous, on which she asked whether if thrown in anybody's face it would leave a scar. He replied, "Yes, and if it fell in the eyes the consequences would be terrible." After wavering for a few minutes, she went out, overtook the girl, called out to her, "Mademoiselle," and on her turn-

ing round, threw the vitriol in her face. Some of it went into her left eye. She suffered great agony, and is now blind of one eye, besides being frightfully disfigured. Madame de Tilly interested herself in her recovery and voluntarily gave her 20,000 francs, besides bearing the expense of her illness. The witnesses for the defence gave the Countess the highest character, stating that she had learnt Latin and Greek in order to teach her children at home, and that she was most generous to the poor. Marie Maréchal denied that she had any hopes of marrying her lover, or that she had received large sums from him. The Countess, who strenuously disclaimed any intention of blinding her rival, was acquitted, after a touching address by her advocate, M. Lachaud.

18. A terrible hurricane swept over the island of Jamaica. The south-eastern part of the island was most severely visited : crops being destroyed, houses razed, and provisions scattered. In Kingston the wharves were dismantled, and the shipping either driven out to sea or sunk in the harbour.

— The following ukase issued by the Emperor of Russia :—"By our ukase, dated February 24, with a view to put an end to the audacious attempts of evildoers to subvert the State and the social order in Russia, we established a Supreme Executive and appointed Count Loris Melikoff with extraordinary powers. Having followed the labours of the Chief of the Commission, we have become convinced that the immediate object of the Commission, the unification of all authorities in combating the spirit of sedition, has been so far attained that our further wishes in regard to the maintenance of social order may be effected by ordinary legal means, with some extension of the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Interior. Consequently, and in order to consolidate the unity of action in the existing organs of the executive authorities, we decree—first, the closure of the Supreme Executive Commission and the transference of its affairs to the Ministry of the Interior ; secondly, the abolition of the third section of our Chancery, a transference of its affairs to the Ministry of the Interior, and the formation in the Ministry of the Interior of a special department of the State police to conduct such affairs pending the fusion of all the police bodies of the Empire in one department of the said Ministry ; thirdly, the direction of the Corps of Gendarmes is given to the Minister of the Interior with the rights of Chief of Gendarmes ; fourthly, the Minister of the Interior shall terminate all questions raised in the Supreme Commission and shall have the right to call members of the Commission, now closed, for the purpose of special consultation ; fifthly, governors, generals, and other authorities, in cases in which, according to the ukase of February 24, they referred to the Chief of the Supreme Executive Commission, shall in future address themselves to the Minister of the Interior, to whom is given the supreme investigation of all State crimes, on the same basis as belonged to the Chief of the Supreme Commission ; sixthly, with the view of lightening the multifarious duties of the Ministry of the Interior without violating its present legal signification, the departments of the post and the telegraphs shall be separated from the said Ministry and, together with the department of spiritual affairs and of foreign creeds, shall be given into the charge of a person whom we shall appoint ; seventhly, the charge of carrying into effect the preceding to be placed upon Ministers of the Interior, and our decision is to be asked in cases of necessity.

"ALEXANDER."

— The annual local taxation returns (England) for the year 1878-9

issued. This is the ninth annual return of local taxation which has been tabulated under the direction of the Local Government Board. The total raised during 1878-9 by local taxation was 30,898,828*l.* In addition Treasury subventions amounting to 2,153,362*l.* were received in easement of the local rates, making a total of 33,052,190*l.* Of this sum 27,832,170*l.* was levied by rates falling on ratable property ; 4,763,437*l.* by tolls, dues, and rents falling on traffic ; and 456,583*l.* by duties falling on consumable articles. It is stated in the memorandum that the Treasury grants in aid of local taxation exceed the sums entered in the accounts of the local authorities forwarded to the Local Government Board. This difference arises, for the most part, from the Government taking upon itself several charges in relief of local taxation that do not appear in the annual returns. The sum voted by Parliament for the financial year 1878-9 was, for England, 2,873,675*l.*

19. The seventh and last missing boat of the steamer "American," which foundered on April 23, picked up and conveyed to Loanda. Only one life was lost among the crew and passengers, the whole escaping in the seven boats belonging to the ship, and being picked up at various spots.

— A very singular accident happened in the Bleamoor Tunnel, on the Midland line, between Settle and Carlisle. The Manchester and Leeds express northward had entered, when its air brake became out of order, and the train came to a standstill. A Pullman car express train from London came up shortly afterwards. It was warned by the explosion of fog-signals, but it was unable to quite stop in time. The guard's van of the Manchester train was smashed, and the engine of the Pullman express was thrown off the line. A dog in the first train was killed, and several passengers, of which there was a large number, suffered severely from the shaking which they received. The scene of confusion and alarm in the tunnel was beyond description.

20. The Annual Report of the Chief Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police issued, from which it appeared that the force on January 1st numbered 10,711 exclusive of the city police. In the year 1879 the number of felonies committed and brought to the knowledge of the public was 21,891, for which 11,431 persons had been arrested. The losses by thefts declared to be 101,698*l.*, of which 22,460*l.* had been recovered.

— The remains of Lady Edward Fitzgerald, well known in French literature as 'Paméla,' removed to the family vault at Thames Ditton from Paris, where she had died in 1831, when she was followed to the Montmartre Cemetery by Talleyrand and other notabilities.

21. Madrid visited by gales and a heavy thunderstorm that injured the vineyards near the capital and deluged the streets for twenty-four hours. The telegraph lines all over the peninsula were injured. All the morning trains were stopped in the mountains north or south, arriving in Madrid many hours late. Avalanches and rain washed away the northern lines in the Guadarrama Mountains, near Escorial.

— An appalling act of cruelty reported from Pontremoli, in Italy. A female lay servant, employed in the Carmelite convent of that name, had been detected in the act of stealing some bread, and for this offence was tried before an impromptu tribunal consisting of the abbess and two of the senior nuns, and condemned "to undergo the torments of purgatory." The abbess and her reverend coadjutors then proceeded to enforce their barbarous

sentence. Having conveyed their victim to a cell in which an iron stove stood out from the wall, they caused the stove to be heated in her presence, and then, tying her hands tightly together behind her back, held her face down for several minutes close to the surface of the glowing metal. Her struggles and heartrending entreaties for mercy were of no avail. The nuns protracted her martyrdom until her scorched eyes had lost their sight for ever, and her whole face was converted into one huge blister. The perpetrators were denounced by several members of the community to the local authorities, who consigned the abbess and other nuns to prison.

23. About 400 delegates from Radical and Democratic clubs and associations of London and its suburbs assembled at Westminster for the purpose of urging upon Mr. T. P. O'Connor, M.P., the necessity of pressing his motion respecting the House of Lords to a division and to present him with an address advocating the total abolition of the House of Lords. An adjournment was made from the Conference Room of the House of Commons to the Westminster Palace Hotel in order to enable all the delegates to take part in the proceedings. Mr. O'Connor was accompanied by Mr. Justin McCarthy, M.P., Mr. Briggs, M.P., and Mr. Burt, M.P. Mr. Burt was nominated chairman. After the reading of the address, which was in the name of various Radical associations, various delegates addressed the meeting. Mr. T. P. O'Connor said that every movement of support which had been accorded to him had been of a spontaneous character, and thoroughly free from control or suggestion on his part. That showed that he was giving voice to a great want. The question of the Irish land to-day was the question of the English land to-morrow. The struggle now going on was a struggle by a people for an existence in their own land. He denied that the House of Lords represented the intelligence of the people. It was the refuge for those of the Lower House who had shown themselves either stupid administrators or of more inconvenience to their friends than to their foes.

24. Mr. B. Leigh Smith, in his steam yacht "Eira," reached $80^{\circ}20'$ north latitude, and 40° east longitude, the most northerly point yet attained in that direction. In this hitherto unexplored sea Mr. Leigh Smith discovered seven small and four large islands, covered with glaciers, with bluff black headlands to the south, whereon was vegetation. The expedition had started from Peterhead on June 19 with a crew of 25, intending first to explore the east coast of Greenland, but were forced by the ice to alter their course. At midnight on July 30 they cleared the south cape of Spitzbergen, and then worked in a north-easterly direction. On August 18 they discovered a new harbour, and named it "Eira" Harbour, lying in $80^{\circ}5'25''$ north latitude and $48^{\circ}50'$ east longitude, formed of two islands, on one of which they found luxurious vegetation and made it their headquarters. They started homewards in the last week of August, making investigations on the way, and reached Hammerfest on September 25, and Peterhead on October 12.

25. The annual meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science opened this year at Swansea with the address of the President elect, Professor A. C. Ramsay, LL.D., F.R.S., Director-General of the Geological Survey and of the Museum of Practical Geology. His remarks were chiefly directed towards the recurrence of certain geological phenomena at various epochs of the world's history.

— The Great Ebor Handicap at the York Meeting won in a canter, by a length and a half, by Mr. W. Stevenson's Novice (by Macaroni-Tyro,) 3 years; 6 st. 6 lbs. Ten started; course 2 miles; time 3 min. 48 secs.

— The following letter published in the *Times* :—

"Sir,—In reference to the complaint of Lord Hartington concerning the obstruction of business by the utterance of 407 speeches by six members—viz., Lord R. Churchill, Sir H. Wolff, Mr. Gorst, and three Irish members—will you allow me to recall to mind a few occurrences of last Session, which, if not abetted, were at least passively endured by his Lordship?

"On June 30 the Irish members spoke 119 times between the hours of 4.50 and half-past 1. On July 3, on the Army Bill, they spoke 96 times; and on July 5—a Saturday—112 times. Between June 16 and July 7 Mr. Parnell spoke 222, Mr. O'Connor Power 56, Mr. O'Donnell 113, Mr. Biggar 74, Mr. Callan 26, Major Nolan 108, and Major O'Beirne 34 times. In this period there were 11 sittings, and a total of 633 speeches delivered by these gentlemen alone. On July 8 Mr. Parnell rose 24 times, Major Nolan 10 times, Mr. O'Donnell four times, Mr. Biggar twice, and Major O'Beirne once. On this day, therefore, 41 speeches were delivered by these members. The number of speeches made by the same gentlemen on the following days of July were, 73 on the 10th, 39 on the 14th, 40 on the 15th, and 54 on the 18th. In 14 of the sittings quoted nearly 900 speeches were made, or an average of 112 per man, Mr. Parnell alone having spoken 296 times. Out of 628 speeches delivered during the first four weeks of last Session, 171 were by Home Rulers; and it was calculated at the time that had all the members spoken to the same extent, the effect would have been 10,000 speeches and 1,400 hours of talk.

"A. M."

26. The man Cordigliani, who on June 25 threw two paving stones among the deputies standing on the floor of the Italian Chamber, condemned to five years' imprisonment for assault, six months' further imprisonment for outraging the institutions of the country, and 2,000 francs fine, or an equivalent extension of imprisonment. The trial lasted three days, the second day being taken up with the medical testimony as to the man's moral and physical condition and the deciphering and reading of certain letters in cipher found upon him, and the third day by the speeches for the prosecution and the defence and the Judge's summing-up. The culprit can best be described as a kind of Italian Simon Tappertit, who was continually leaving the tailor's workroom in which he was engaged to pose as a political agitator and to attend Republican and Socialist meetings and clubs. Imbued with an overweening sense of his own importance he was overbearing and excited in his conduct, and the majority of the witnesses said that he was generally looked upon as *mezzo matto*. On one occasion he appeared at a Republican banquet dressed as Ciceruacchio, with a Phrygian cap on his head. His sweetheart, who was called by the defence, admitted that he was very presumptuous and thought himself a great deal better than he was. His predilection for politics prevented his gaining a livelihood at his trade, and through want of means he was unable to pay his subscription to the Republican club to which he belonged. His wild excitable manner was attributed by the medical witnesses to chronic affection of the heart. In June he left his native town—Viterbo—ostensibly to find work in Rome; but before starting he talked mysteriously of accomplishing an act which would make all the newspapers talk. Shortly after arriving he went to the Chamber of Deputies and com-

mitted the offence for which he has now been condemned. When taken into custody he said he had no ill-feeling against any individual deputy, but had aimed at them all generally. During his public examination at the commencement of the trial he said he had been impelled by misery and desperation to commit an act which would enable him to eat the prison fare. He did not want to commit a theft. He ought to have thrown himself into the Tiber, but he had decided to go to the Chamber and do what he did. Upon him were found several letters written in cipher in the year 1877, but as to their significance, or whether they possess any or not, the proceedings have thrown no positive light. He says they were written to him from Rome by a certain Enrico Englen, who, meeting him in a *café* in Viterbo that year and engaging him in conversation on politics, told him it was necessary to get rid of all sovereigns, and finally proposed that he should enter into a plot to kill Victor Emmanuel. He said that he consented, but had no real intention of committing the act. The letters, which were read by experts from a key given, after a first pretence of forgetfulness, with great readiness from memory by Cordigliani, were, however, somewhat curiously at variance with facts. In one the writer tells him that Signors Nicotera and Crispi were both favourable to the attempt being made. On the President asking him how it was such a ridiculous statement regarding two persons, who were respectively Minister of the Interior and President of the Chamber of Deputies at the time, and both friends of the Monarchy and the King, had not convinced him at once that a deception was being practised upon him, he replied that though he understood it now he was at the time too much occupied with foreign politics to think of it. A third letter, dated November 30, 1878—that is, shortly after Passanante's attempt on King Humbert's life—asks him if he was still of the same mind, and tells him the moment for action had arrived. The prisoner, however, asserted that this letter was also written in 1877. But who the writer Englen was there was no evidence to show. He may, as some are inclined to think, have been an Internationalist agent, using that *alias* towards Cordigliani, and whose task it was to work upon him as a possible instrument; or the cipher, as Cordigliani's perfect intimacy with it might indicate, may have been invented by the prisoner in the course of his political pursuits and studies, and the letters have been written by himself; but how this may be remains a mystery. It is possible that Englen may have been concerned in preparing that attempt against the sovereign which was finally made on King Humbert's life, that Cordigliani may have been one of the intended instruments, but Passanante was the man ultimately chosen; and probably the judicial authorities know more about the letters in cipher than has been allowed to appear at the trial. Any additional evidence regarding them was unnecessary to convict Cordigliani of the offence with which he was charged, and they were only calculated to frustrate the ends of justice, though as regards the use of the names of Signors Nicotera and Crispi it will be remembered that Luciani used in a similar way the name of Garibaldi to work upon the men he induced to accomplish the assassination of Sonzogno in 1875.

— St. Mary's Church, Whitechapel, which had been quite recently rebuilt at a cost of 70,000*l.*, totally destroyed by fire, which broke out in the organ-loft, where some men were at work.

— Mr. Gladstone started from Gravesend on board the Donald Currie steamship "Grantully Castle" (3,600 tons) for a voyage round the United

Kingdom. An immense and enthusiastic crowd was waiting both at Charing Cross and at Gravesend to speed the Premier on his way.

27. The sitting of the House of Commons which commenced at 4 o'clock on Thursday afternoon did not terminate until 10 minutes to 1 this afternoon. Of the twenty-one hours thus passed, almost exclusively on Irish concerns, nearly eighteen were spent in committee over the vote for the pay of the Irish constabulary force. Early on Thursday evening it was known that there was to be a trial of strength between the Government and the Home Rule members—the former desiring to carry the vote, which, owing to the delay, had now become urgent, and the latter determined to resist, in the hope of eliciting from the Government a pledge that some modification in the constitution of the Royal Irish Constabulary would be made before next year. It was even suggested as a condition of passing the vote that the Government should promise to disarm and reduce the strength of the Irish police force. Arrangements were made on the Ministerial side of the House to furnish the Government with strong relays of members throughout the night, and the Home Rulers—about twenty-eight Irish members joined in the contest—also came to an agreement that eight or ten of their number should remain “on duty,” while their colleagues in turn sought repose. Under these circumstances, the vote was debated with vigour, but not undue warmth, until 3 o'clock, when signs of impatience began to show themselves on the Liberal benches at the repetitions indulged in by the Irish speakers, who talked a great deal on the land question, and not on the vote itself. A diversion was made for a time by an explosion of indignation at the conduct of the Government whips in providing relays—a point with regard to which Lord Kensington declined to supply the Home Rulers with any information. The brunt of the battle on the Treasury bench was felt by the Marquis of Hartington and Mr. Forster. At 6 o'clock Mr. Playfair retired from the chair quite exhausted, and his place was taken by Sir F. Herschell—the Home Rulers saluting the incident with ironical cheers. Mr. Parnell, who controlled and directed the Home Rule opposition, came forward occasionally to suggest that they should adjourn and meet again at night or on Monday to take up the real debate on the vote; but the proposals were rejected as not definite, the Ministers wanting a clear undertaking that if the vote was fixed for Monday it should be finished at the sitting. A division at this time showed that eleven Home Rulers were in the House, against ninety-eight supporters of the Government. Mr. Courtney warmly remonstrated with the minority, and charged them with following tactics which would injure their country. Mr. Forster, who had been frequently on his legs to correct or challenge statements, gently subsided about 7 o'clock, and little was heard of him until 9, when he came to the table and announced that he was quite fresh and ready for any amount of discussion. Several of the Irish members, prominent among them Mr. Biggar and Mr. Dillon, returned to the House, apparently after a good night's rest. The Government was gaining, too, by the arrival of Liberal and Conservative members who had been sent for to release their friends from further attendance. On the whole, with the exception of an episode connected with the introduction by an Irish member of refreshments into the House, the discussion and the whole proceeding had been carried on with perfect seriousness and good humour. A change took place, however, during a speech by Mr. O'Shaughnessy, who angrily resented an insinuation that the honour of the Irish members was tainted; but Mr.

Forster happily poured oil on the troubled waters, and again the struggle proceeded in its steady commonplace way. On the Treasury bench were, besides Mr. Forster and Lord Hartington, Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Fawcett, and Mr. Mundella. On the front Opposition bench were Sir S. Northcote, Sir R. Cross, Mr. W. H. Smith, and Mr. D. Plunket. Lord R. Churchill sat behind, having drawn away from his usual seat below the gangway, where the Irish members held their ground. Mr. Parnell retired to rest himself outside the House, beyond the bar. About fifty Liberal members—chiefly sitting below the gangway—looked on at the Irish members talking; while on the Opposition side, above the gangway, was a knot of Conservatives engaged in the same cheerless occupation. The floor of the House was littered with scraps of papers, documents were scattered untidily on all the benches, and the whole appearance of the Chamber was unkempt. Many of the members, who had never flinched from their post, looked worn and haggard, and this helped largely to give the House of Commons a *déshabillé* air quite unfamiliar to it. At midday there were ironical calls from the Liberal side to Mr. Parnell to return to the field of battle and take charge of his party. For a time the hon. member gave no heed to these calls, but shortly after noon he came to his seat in the House. For hours the Government had been trying to ascertain whether the Irish members would state what arrangement they proposed, and give a pledge to abide by it. All demands to disarm the constabulary, to reduce their number, and all appeals to the Government to promise not to employ the constabulary in evictions having died away for the moment, Mr. Parnell, responding to an appeal made from the Liberal side below the gangway, proposed that the Government should give the Irish members one whole night to discuss the vote. If, said he, that was conceded, he had no doubt the vote would be disposed of in one night. This offer was seized with pleasure by the Government, and the constabulary vote being fixed for Monday night the long-trying House, numbering at the last close on 150 members, disappeared as if by magic at 10 minutes to 1, only a few lingering for a brief moment to see the Speaker return to the chair formally to run through “the orders of the day.”

28. According to the *Financier*, Glasgow Bank shares had become so scarce, few shareholders having survived the liquidation, that they were now valuable property. For one share 3,000*l.* was asked. The liquidators have paid 17*s.* in the pound already, and hold large assets, which, however, require time for realisation.

— The marriage of Abbé Laine, who till only a short time ago officiated as a regular priest in a village in the Department of Sarthe, solemnised by Père Hyacinthe. After the performance of the service, M. Loyson addressed a few words to the newly-married couple. He congratulated Abbé Laine on having allowed the rights of his heart to prevail; on having raised himself above the prejudice that obliges priests to crush their love or profane it. He dwelt on the importance of the marriage of priests from the point of view of patriotism, and he thought there were instances enough of the devotion and self-sacrifice of laymen to show that family life was not incompatible with the duties of the priest.

29. A statue of Denis Papin unveiled at Blois, where he was born in 1647. Papin, who was a Protestant, spent the greater part of his life in exile, living sometimes in London and sometimes at Cassel and Marburg, where he

invented the celebrated steamboat on which he ascended the Weser, to the horror of the native peasants, who seized it and broke it up, believing it to be the work of the Evil One. The Government was represented by M. Wilson, the Under-Secretary for Finance, and the Institute by M. de Lesseps.

30. Terrific hurricanes passed over Bermuda, Jamaica, and other West Indian islands. Churches, houses, groves of cedars were blown away, vessels wrecked, and enormous damage done to the crops. The greatest devastation is reported from the north side of the island of Jamaica, where in one district 452 houses were destroyed and 2,000 persons rendered homeless.

— At Llanthony Abbey, near Abergavenny, according to Father Ignatius (Rev. S. Lyne), a miraculous appearance of the silver “monstrance” (which holds the Sacrament), outside the tabernacle or cupboard inside which the monstrance was kept, was seen by three of the brothers and a schoolmistress of the neighbourhood.

— A savage murder was perpetrated at Loughetcher, a mountain district near Woodford, in the county of Galway. The following are the facts :— Two half-brothers named George and Kerin Power, who were joint occupants of a small farm for some years, quarrelled some time ago about the boundaries, and the ill-feeling became so intense that the elder brother George struck the younger with a spade, and was prosecuted for an assault. The prosecution created greater exasperation, and George Power frequently threatened his brother's life. On Monday, at midday, he was mowing in a field when he observed Kerin passing by at a short distance, when he rushed out and attacked him with a scythe, knocked him down, and severed his head from his body. His fury being still unsatisfied, he hacked the legs, arms, and face of his victim in a barbarous manner. The police were at once communicated with, and a large force proceeded to the spot and arrested George Power in his own house. He is described as a stout-built man, about forty-two years of age. The remains were “waked” at night by the neighbours of the deceased, as the police would not allow them to be removed, pending the inquest.

31. From the following statistics of the wool trade, compiled from official sources, it appears that the wool clip of the world has increased by five-fold since 1830, when it was equal to about 320,000,000 lbs. ; while in 1878—the latest year for which complete returns exist—it amounted to nearly 1,600,000,000 lbs., which when scoured gave 850,000,000 lbs. of clean wool. Previous to 1830, nearly all the world's supply of wool was furnished by Europe ; 280,000,000 lbs. out of the entire world's supply of 320,000,000 lbs. being European :—

	1830	1878
	lbs.	lbs.
European produce . . .	280,000,000	740,000,000
River Plate	22,000,000	240,000,000
United States	10,000,000	208,000,000
Australia	6,000,000	350,000,000
South Africa	2,000,000	48,000,000
	320,000,000	1,586,000,000

In 1830 there were but 890 miles of railway in the world. In 1880, there were 202,000 miles, and every year they are increasing by thousands of miles. Of the total number of persons engaged in the woollen industry of the world, as far as operatives are concerned, a fair idea can be given, for whilst

the manufacturers of wool and cotton fabrics represent an almost equal amount in value, the number of operatives in woollen mills is only two thirds of that engaged in cotton mills :—

	Operatives	Spindles	Consumption
			lbs.
Great Britain . . .	280,000	5,100,000	380,000,000
France	170,000	2,500,000	380,000,000
Germany	120,000	1,800,000	165,000,000
United States . . .	120,000	1,400,000	250,000,000
Russia, Austria, &c. .	223,000	1,800,000	400,000,000
	913,000	12,600,000	1,575,000,000

Although France and Great Britain consume the same quantity of wool, in France it is to a greater extent the unscoured wool of the River Plate, which only turns out 30 per cent. of wool, whereas in England it is native or washed Australian which is mainly used, hence the woollen manufactories in Great Britain are considerably greater than in France, although the pound weight consumed would appear to be the same.

— The Jesuit schools throughout France closed in virtue of the March Decrees, which had hitherto been applied only in Paris and a few other centres.

— General Roberts, who had left Cabul on the 8th with a force of 10,000, arrived at Candahar with the loss of scarcely a man.

SEPTEMBER.

1. General Roberts, having reached Candahar on the previous day, attacked Ayoub Khan and completely defeated him, capturing his camp and all his guns, and dispersing his army in all directions, with a loss of less than 200 killed and wounded.

— A wooden bridge over the Ebro near Logroño gave way while a battalion of troops was crossing. Nearly 100 persons, including three officers of the Valencia regiment, were drowned, notwithstanding the efforts made to save them. The accident occurred whilst the bridge, which had only been finished two days previously, was being tested.

— The Ministerial “whitebait” dinner took place at the Ship Hotel, Greenwich, the only absentees being Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Campbell-Bannerman.

— A fine specimen of horological art erected at Nürnberg at the expense of the Princes of the Royal House, and intended as a memorial of the Wittelsbach Jubilee, celebrated this year. The clock is placed at an elevation of 14·2 metres, or a little over 46½ feet. It is surrounded with ornamental work in mediæval style and several gilt figures, most of which move by mechanical arrangement. The idea intended to be expressed is that the Bavarian people at all times reverences its king, who governs under the protection of God. Above is the sitting figure of the Saviour, and below that of Louis II., also seated. Around the Saviour are arranged eight angels, some of whom strike the clock bells, others blow trumpets, others hold a curtain behind the king, before whom two citizens bow down reverentially. An inscription records the object and authors of the work. The old arms of the Palatinate are set below. The whole work is in the style of the 14th century.

2. On the motion of the Attorney-General, the House of Commons agreed, after some discussion, to the issue of a Royal Commission to inquire into the alleged corrupt practices prevailing in Gloucester, Canterbury, Chester, Macclesfield, Knaresborough, Boston, Sandwich, and Oxford.

— A novel exhibition of powerful electric lights made at Nantasket Beach, near Boston, Mass., and witnessed by quite a crowd of interested spectators. The Northern Electric Light Company erected three wooden towers, each 100 feet high, and mounted upon each of these a circular row of twelve electric lights of the Weston patent, each light being estimated at 2,500-candle power. As these towers were but 500 feet apart and in a triangle, the light of 90,000 candles was concentrated within a limited territory. The object of the exhibition was to afford a model of the plan contemplated for lighting cities from overhead in vast areas, the estimate being that four towers to a square mile of area, each mounting lights aggregating 90,000-candle power, will suffice to flood the territory about with a light almost equal to midday. A motive power of 36 horses was used in generating the electricity from three Weston machines, and the lights, with one single slight flicker, burned steadily and brilliantly all the evening. It is difficult to say whether the experiment proved anything or not. The light was sufficiently brilliant to allow two base-ball nines to play in the centre of the field lighted; but, on account of the uncertain light (resembling that of the moon at its full), the batting was weak, and the pitchers were poorly supported. About a mile from the lights the rays were discernible, though the intervening territory was but little affected beyond an eighth of a mile circuit. The lights appeared to illuminate a larger area on the water-side than on the land.

3. M. Regel, late Russian consul on the Russo-Mongolian frontier, published in a St. Petersburg newspaper the following, characteristic of Chinese views on free trade:—"During my stay in the town of Thiko in the spring of last year, a guard of honour, with flags, every morning and evening stood before a large proclamation posted in the centre of the bazaar, and, after beating of drums, an official read the following: 'In the last moon of this year a great misfortune befell the Celestial Empire. An Englishman, without receiving permission from the Son of Heaven to trade upon his sacred soil, nevertheless dared to pass into the province of Yunnan, and, instigating a quarrel, was killed by the inhabitants, who did not know him. So, in consequence of this, the subjects of the Son of Heaven had to pay to the wife of this Englishman an enormous amount of silver. Wishing to spare our beloved subjects from any similar misfortune in the future, we order in our wisdom that each of our subjects shall devoutly keep watch to prevent any other single foreign trader from penetrating into our empire without our permission. We order this to be read before all our subjects every day, morning and evening.'"

— A sad boating accident took place at Roscoff, on the coast of Brittany. The boat was a cutter of four tons, belonging to Prince Galitzin, who recently purchased it from the Comte de Guebriant. The Prince, being called away on business, had left his boat at the disposal of the Vicomte de Fleury, who invited the following persons for a sail—Mr., Mrs., and Miss Hennessy, Mr. and Mrs. Potter, and Mr. Grégoire Home. The boat left the harbour at two o'clock with a fair breeze from north-east by east, in charge of Béguel, a pilot of Roscoff. After a run of three-quarters of an hour, the ground-swell running pretty high, she struck on the Grand Capucin, oppo-

site Santec, five miles west of Roscoff. The boat ran her bows up the rock, which was two feet under water, heeled over on her port side, filled, and sank by the stern in deep water. Mr. Hennessy first rose to the surface, and almost at once saw his wife come up gasping beside him. Seizing her he placed her on the bowsprit, which was the only part of the boat visible, and which was itself covered by each succeeding wave. He then saw his daughter's head coming up through the water, and, placing his arm under hers, he helped her also to take hold of the bowsprit, and managed to seize her mother. Both were washed off, as was also M. de Fleury, but Miss Hennessy was caught by Mr. Home and replaced on the bowsprit, supporting her mother, who, however, died in a few minutes from suffocation arising from heart-disease and the sudden shock. Mrs. Potter sank at once, and was not seen again. Mr. Potter, after having been twice placed on the rock by Mr. Home, was washed off and perished. Mr. Home, having done what he could for everyone, swam for the shore to obtain assistance. After swimming about a mile and a quarter he met a boat coming to their assistance, and returning with it picked up the pilot, and on reaching the wreck found Mr. and Miss Hennessy and the valet still clinging to the bowsprit and alive.

4. The steamer "City of Vera Cruz" caught in a hurricane off the coast of Florida—the captain and officers washed overboard. The vessel foundered about thirty miles from shore. Of the seventy persons on board only thirteen survived, who were picked up after having been twenty-four hours in the water.

— Mr. Gladstone arrived at Gravesend at 8.30 P.M., having completed the tour of the United Kingdom in the "Grantully Castle." After leaving Gravesend on August 26, the ship passed down the Channel, avoiding the Isle of Wight in consequence of a thick fog. Weymouth was sighted, and a short halt made at Dartmouth. The next stage was Falmouth, where the Premier landed for a short time. After rounding the Land's End, the course was altered to the coast of Ireland, and on Sunday morning Kingstown was reached. The next morning Greenock was touched at; thence through the Mull of Cantyre and the Sound of Islay to Oban. Skye was the next stage; thence, round Cape Wrath, sighting the Orkneys, Peterhead, and Aberdeen, the ship was at length able to put in at Montrose. At Edinburgh he went ashore and received deputations. Thence down the coast to Yarmouth, the last stopping place before reaching the point whence he had started nine days previously.

— A simultaneous ascent of balloons, arranged under the auspices of the recently formed Balloon Society of Great Britain. According to the programme, eight aerial vehicles were to go up as nearly as possible to five o'clock from an equal number of points within a radius of about ten miles from St. Paul's Cathedral, a prize medal being promised to the aeronaut who, descending within an hour and a half, should have travelled the greatest distance. The weather being fine, dry, and comparatively calm, could hardly have been more favourable for the novel experiment, the objects of which were to attract attention to the claims of the association already named, and to throw some light, if possible, upon the debatable question of wind currents at different altitudes. It was found impossible to carry out the original arrangements in their entirety. The War Office balloon, which was to have been sent up from Woolwich, was unfortunately detained at Dungeness, and, owing to failure in the gas supply, no ascent was made as

appointed from the Welsh Harp at Hendon or from Lillie Bridge. From the remaining five stations—viz., the Alexandra Palace, Crystal Palace, Clapham Rink, Epping Forest, and North Woolwich Gardens—successful ascents were made, though not quite simultaneously. The result, broadly stated, seems to have been that the balloons, starting from different points and attaining various altitudes, were irresistibly carried in the same north-north-easterly direction. The current, however, which carried all in one general line proved to be wide in its range, so that the collision which some had feared might result from a tendency to converge on the same point never came near to happening. The first balloon to ascend was that in charge of Mr. Orton, from the Forest Hotel, at Chingford. He left the earth at three minutes to five o'clock, carrying one passenger, and, after a pleasant voyage, descended at Ashton, three miles from Matlock Station, on the Great Eastern Railway. The balloon was in the air one hour and twenty-five minutes, the maximum altitude attained being about 3,000 ft. Mr. Simmins left the Clapham Rink at 4.58 p.m., with a balloon containing 26,000 ft. of gas, and lifting 990 lbs. He had a particularly interesting trip, passing over the Thames at Westminster, where he heard Big Ben strike five, and being at a sufficiently low altitude when crossing Moorgate Street to speak to persons below. From this point he was carried by the same current, which appears to have been equally potent with his competitors, northward, along the course of the river Lea. Mr. Simmins descended at 6.53 p.m. at Widdington, Essex, a distance somewhat under fifty miles. He claimed to have attained a maximum altitude of 14,300 ft., at which he found the temperature to be as low as 39°. Mr. Wright's "Owl," which required over 30,000 cubic feet for the purpose of inflation, went up from the Crystal Palace at a quarter past five. There were four occupants of the car, one of them being Commander Cheyne, R.A., and another an American tourist. This balloon passed over the Thames and the East end of London, and proceeded, by way of Barking, Ilford, Chipping Ongar, and Dunmow, to Little Bardfield, two miles from Halstead, Essex, where it came down. After lowering his grapnel, Mr. Wright observed that it was about to catch some telegraph wires, and, to avoid the injury which would have inevitably resulted to the property of her Majesty's Postmaster-General, he cut away the cable without a moment's hesitation—an exhibition of courage and presence of mind which procured for himself and his passengers an even severer shaking than visitors to cloudland always expect when returning to mother earth. Mr. Jackson, a veteran, ascended with one passenger, in a balloon of 30,000 cubic feet, from North Woolwich Gardens, at seven minutes after five, descending in safety at 6.40 p.m. at Three Chimnies Farm, Ridgwell, Halstead, Essex, a distance of more than fifty miles from the starting-point, the maximum altitude attained having been 6,250 ft. Mr. Barker went up from the Alexandra Palace at 5.45 p.m., and landed at Berdon, in Essex, a distance of about thirty-four miles. From a tabulated statement subsequently drawn up, it appeared that the maximum rate attained was 27 miles an hour. The result being so nearly equal, each of the five aëronauts received a silver medal.

5. A demonstration, attended by large numbers, made in Hyde Park in protest against the House of Lords, which had thrown out or refused to discuss various Irish measures sent up from the House of Commons. Mr. T. P. O'Connor took the place of chairman, and the other members of Parliament present were Mr. J. Barry, Dr. Lyons, and Mr. O'Kelly.

6. Permission accorded by the Queen to Lord Braye to hang up the

sword of his elder brother, the Hon. Edmund Verney Wyatt-Edgell, who was killed at Ulundi, in the Braye Chapel at St. George's, and almost immediately over the body of Sir Reginald Braye. At first it was understood that her Majesty intended placing the statue of the Prince Imperial either in the Braye Chapel or in the nave, but another site was subsequently chosen in the aisle north of the chancel, near the grave of Edward IV. Strangely enough, Captain Wyatt-Edgell was one of those sent a few weeks before the battle of Ulundi to recover the body of the Prince Imperial.

— Mr. F. J. Campbell, of the Norwood College for the Blind, a blind man, thus described his successful ascent of Mont Blanc :—" In company with my son, with Benoit as my leading guide, I attacked Mont Blanc. At first the guides expected to drag me up, but I gave them their choice to leave me to climb in my own way or give up the undertaking. I was resolved to make an honest climb or give up the ascent. I took my place on the rope in the ordinary way, except that the distance between my son and myself was only a few feet. This enabled me to follow his footsteps closely, and in such places as the very dangerous crevasse near the grand plateau we moved in immediate succession. For instance, before he would take the fingers of his right hand out of the hole which had been cut in the ice wall for the purpose, my left hand would touch his right hand and be ready to occupy the hole as soon as he had relinquished it. With the exception of cutting very excellent steps for me, the guides during the ascent did not assist me in any way. I was glad to find that the ascent of such steep places as the Bosse was much easier than I had anticipated. The cutting of steps required considerable time, and allowed me at my leisure to prepare for each difficult and dangerous step. Besides carrying a strong alpenstock, I always take with me in difficult climbs a short walking-stick, which I often use in my right hand as an indicator, and to show the skill which it is possible to attain in this way I may mention that I did not miss a single step in the entire ascent. When I reached the summit, Benoit exclaimed, 'Welcome to the summit of Mont Blanc! You are the first and last blind gentleman who will ever stand upon this the highest point in Europe.' Passing from peak to peak, I went round the entire circle, dwelling on many favourite summits. They had all been carefully studied, and each in its turn brought some new winged hope for the future. It was very cold, and the guides soon reminded us that we must begin the descent."

7. The following statement issued, showing the increase and expenditure of the Corporation of the City of London at a distance of thirty years.

INCOME.		1850	1879
Coal Duty (4d. per ton)	{	£72,944 (gross)	£147,907
	}	60,600 (net)	
Receipts from City Markets		20,351	147,235
Rents and Quit Rents		73,754	116,425
Income of Bridge House Estates		31,030	61,483
EXPENDITURE.		1850	1879
Civil Government of the City		30,644	50,791
City Magistracy and Police		18,767	34,280
Charitable Donations, Pensions, &c.		5,885	11,465
Charges on Income arising from Markets		9,091	134,497
Charges on Bridge House Estates		32,681	499,389
Total receipts		£257,400 10s. 10d.	£553,337 10s. 8d.
„ expenditure		£247,931 14s. 2d.	£532,353 9s. 3d.

8. At Seaham Colliery, Durham, about 2 A.M. a loud report was heard, followed by an upheaval of dust and smoke from the pit shaft. The cages were found to be useless, so that explorers had to be let down by loops. Three attempts to reach the workings were unsuccessful, but the fourth met with better results—the men, seventeen in number, entombed at that part were found to be alive and unhurt. It was, however, then discovered that the explosion had occurred in a lower seam, where nearly 200 men were at work, of whom only 35 were ultimately rescued.

— Three days' cricket match at Kennington Oval between England and the Australians resulted in the victory of the former by five wickets. In the first innings England made 420 runs, Dr. W. G. Grace going in first and making a score of 152. The Australians, who had lost the assistance of their best bowler, Spofforth, having made only 148 runs in their first innings, followed on, and in the second ran up a total of 327, to which Mr. W. L. Murdoch contributed 153, coming in second and carrying his bat out. The England eleven had only 57 runs to get to win, but before doing this they lost five wickets, including all three members of the Grace family.

9. The Postmaster-General received from some native inhabitants of Bombay, who had previously subscribed 250*l.* towards his election expenses, a silver tea-service and salver of cutch work, enclosed in a carved wood case, also of native manufacture. The case is inscribed :—"Presented to the Right Honourable Henry Fawcett, M.P., by his native friends and admirers in Bombay, India, June 1880."

11. News received at San Francisco from Dominica, the largest of the islands of the Marquesas group, that the natives had risen against the French authorities. The whites were forced to take refuge in their houses, and were about to capitulate when a French gunboat arrived, rescued them from their peril, and suppressed the revolt.

— A collision between a passenger train and an engine in the act of being shunted took place near the Vauxhall Station of the London and South-Western line. Six persons were killed, and thirteen seriously wounded.

— Mr. Thomas Hughes, Q.C., as chairman of a British land society, founded the first colony in Tennessee, and named the first township Rugby.

12. During the week fresh apparitions of the Virgin alleged to have been seen at the chapel of Knockmore, about five miles from Ballina. The visions described, which were testified to by numerous persons, were of the same description as those said to have been seen at the already celebrated chapel of Knock, about sixteen miles distant. Thousands of pilgrims arrived from all parts, thronging the chapel and grounds night and day.

13. Severe shocks of an earthquake felt at Valparaiso, and a town in the interior of the country named Illapel almost destroyed, 200 persons perishing.

— Grand military manoeuvres of the Prussian Guard and Third Army Corps of the German army commenced at Berlin, in the presence of the Emperor and a number of distinguished visitors from all countries.

— The first prize in the twelve hours' amateur race won by W. O. Davies, of the Westminster Rowing Club, who, at the Agricultural Hall, Islington, accomplished 81 miles in the time—the best distance on record.

— An attempt made to wreck the London and North-Western down express, which left Euston at 5.15 in the morning, near Bushey Station.

Some platelayers were making their usual inspection about 7 A.M., when they discovered a brown paper parcel, containing what was imagined to be about 4 lbs. of dynamite, within 200 yards of the station. An indiarubber tube, containing gunpowder and percussion caps, was connected with it. In spite of the strictest investigation, nothing was discovered beyond the fact that the dynamite had been obtained from Glasgow by an apparently well-to-do person staying at the Charing Cross Hotel. The Irish Fenians and the Russian Nihilists were by turns suspected, but equally without evidence.

— The tentative scheme suggested by Mr. Fawcett for the encouragement of small deposits in Post-Office Savings Banks, by allowing twelve postage stamps affixed to a form provided for the purpose to be received as a deposit of a shilling, came into operation. The counties in which this scheme was experimentally tried were Cardigan, Cumberland, Kent, Leicester, Norfolk, and Somerset, in England and Wales; Down and Waterford, in Ireland; and Aberdeen and Ayr, in Scotland. The necessary forms are supplied gratuitously at any post-office in these counties, and deposits are received at any post-office in these counties at which there is a savings bank.

15. The French *Journal Officiel* announced the annexation of the Society Islands in the following terms:—"In consequence of negotiations entered into by order of the Government between the commandant of the French settlements in Oceania and the Tahitan chiefs, King Pomare has definitely renounced in favour of France all rights and powers over the Society Islands and their dependencies. Accordingly these States, over which for forty years we only exercised a protectorate, have become a French possession, are now similar to our other colonies, and have henceforth but one flag, that of France."

— The St. Leger Stakes at Doncaster won by Mr. C. Brewer's Robert the Devil in a canter by three lengths. Lord Rosebery's Cipolata was second; and the favourite, Bend Or, the winner of the Derby, was sixth. The day was wet and the course heavy. Distance, 1 m. 6 fur. 132 yds.; time, 3 min. 32 secs.

16. The court-martial arising out of the Wimbledon marking scandal concluded after a protracted trial of six weeks, and Sergeant Marshman, of the Royal Marines acquitted of the charge of fraudulent marking in the contest for the Olympic Prize at the Wimbledon meeting. Mr. Runtz, of the London Rifle Brigade, a competitor for the prize, had announced beforehand his score of 46, and, without trying to win, this score was recorded in his favour—the result, as he declared, of collusion between himself and the markers, of which he had given previous notice to the National Rifle Association.

17. A Goat Show, which attracted 119 entries, held at the Alexandra Palace.

18. At Naini Tal, the principal hill station of the North-West Provinces, on the slopes of the Himalayas, a serious landslide occurred, causing the death of 37 European officers and upwards of 300 native soldiers and others. There had been almost continuous rain for some days previously, and at 9.30 A.M. a slip of hillside above the hotel carried away a portion of the building, burying an ayah, a child, and some native servants. At 1.30 a huge slip followed, carrying away the whole of the hotel, the assembly rooms, and many other buildings, causing a terrible loss of life. The wave of water,

mud, trees, and stones, weighing millions of tons, travelled a distance of about 700 yards. The portion that fell into the lake caused a wave 20 feet high, which traversed the whole length of the lake, sweeping all before it, and washing away a soldier and some natives who were on the furthest bank.

— A force of 8,000 Albanians occupied the town and fortress of Dulcigno, expelling the two battalions of Turkish troops who formed the garrison. Riza Pasha, the Turkish Commander-in-Chief, not having received instructions from the Porte to oppose the Albanians by force of arms, withdrew to Goriza.

19. M. de Freycinet, the French Prime Minister, resigned, owing to dissensions in his Cabinet about the execution of the March Decrees.

— Mr. Parnell commenced his autumn agitation in Ireland, and at a meeting at Ennis advised the tenants to “keep a firm grip” on the land, and not to pay unjust rents.

— An unusually severe shock of earthquake was felt at Fribourg in Switzerland, about 11 o'clock. Many buildings were much shaken, and hundreds of people rushed in great alarm from the churches, where special services were being held on the occasion of the Federal fast.

20. Vice-Admiral Sir Frederick Seymour assumed the supreme command of the various squadrons of the allied fleet at Ragusa.

— The following letter from the Dean of Westminster on the Nationalisation of the Established Church appeared in the *Northern Echo* :—

“1. You propose that, under certain regulations, the various Nonconforming communities might make use of the parish church for their own religious services at such hours as would not interfere with the regular services. This is perfectly permissible at present. For six years I tried the experiment in Westminster Abbey. High legal authorities gave me the assurance beforehand, and a strong legal opinion was taken afterwards, to the effect that such services and preachings were allowable provided that it was made clear that they did not form part of the usual services. What was done in Westminster Abbey is lawful in every parish church in England. The only difference is that, the Dean being the Ordinary, there was no need for reference to the Bishop. But unless the Bishop as Ordinary interposed to prevent it, there is nothing in the law which could preclude any parish clergyman from acting on the same principle. I abandoned the practice chiefly because it evoked but little interest in the Nonconforming world, and won but little support from the Liberal party. It was clear from my experience that the attempt would only succeed if tried on exceptional occasions. But, if it were so tried, there could be no objection, provided (that is obviously necessary) that the clergyman in charge should be made responsible for the services conducted. Besides the occasion to which I have already alluded, there was a great assemblage of Wesleyan Methodists at the time of the unveiling of the monument to the two Wesleys. It was accompanied by some appropriate remarks from the Wesleyan ministers and by the singing of a Wesleyan hymn. No one did make (I am sure no one could have made) any objection to the use of Westminster Abbey for so sacred and serious a purpose. No doubt such an exhibition of the use of our churches must be gradual. But, if sought in a proper spirit, there is nothing in the present condition of the law to render it impossible.

“2. You propose that the terms of subscription should be relaxed or

modified. Probably you are not aware that all the subscriptions which existed in former times are swept away. About twelve years ago a Royal Commission considered the subject, and introduced changes so radical that the subject, which down to that time was evidently agitated, has never been revived. The declaration of 'unfeigned assent and consent to all and everything in the Book of Common Prayer' did drive the Nonconforming ministers out in 1662. The declaration of belief that 'the Thirty-nine Articles contain nothing contrary to the Word of God,' the declaration of assent to 'all and every the Thirty-nine Articles, besides the ratification'—once required from all clergymen and graduates—no longer exist. In their place has been substituted a brief assent to the doctrine of the Church of England as contained in the Book of Common Prayer and the Articles. The word 'doctrine,' rather than 'doctrines,' was deliberately adopted by the Royal Commissioners (as was expressed by one of them in Parliament, without contradiction from any one of his colleagues) in order to make it evident that the candidate no longer professed his belief in any particular opinion set forth, but only in the general doctrine. The particular assent to all the expressions in the formularies was done away with, in order that henceforth no one might feel his conscience pledged to any of the numerous and at times contradictory propositions contained in those documents. Since that time a new generation of clergy have grown up, who are ignorant that they are free from the bondage under which their fathers suffered, and that the deliverance which they desire was effected by the toil and at the peril of those who laboured before them.

"It is true that there remains that slight and colourless adhesion of which I spoke just now, and the change from that form to its certain abolition would be far less than was accomplished by the change from the complicated and grievous entanglement which existed previously. Whether that scanty remnant of subscription carries much offence I know not; whether it is to be swept away depends on the Liberal party, who are now in power. It cannot be doubted that if the Prime Minister took up this really Liberal view of the National Church the change would at once be carried. It is the requirement that the State enforces on the Church, and it is one of the advantages of the Established Church that the State can remove it. Bishop Burnet long ago recommended that all such preliminary adhesions should be abolished, and any Government which acted in his spirit would confer an inestimable boon on the Church of England, and (I believe I may add) on the Church of Scotland also. Those who preferred a narrower system might still entrench themselves within the bulwarks of the so-called Free or Nonconforming Churches, where no legislative changes could reach them. But for the Established Churches such a deliverance would be in the long run welcomed almost unanimously, as was that greater deliverance effected in 1865."

21. The Marquess of Lorne, Governor-General of Canada, laid the cornerstone of the Redpath Museum, in connection with the McGill College and University of Montreal. The museum was founded by Mr. Peter Redpath, in view of the advancement of scientific and physical instruction.

— A meeting of the Austrian Constitutional party held at Brünn, attended by more than 900 delegates of the towns and rural districts, as well as by a number of the landlord class. A resolution was passed unanimously declaring that the constitution and the position of the German element in

Austria were being endangered by the course adopted by the Ministry; and that the common action of all Germans throughout the Empire was imperatively needed.

— In Switzerland another smart earthquake shock felt shortly before 8 o'clock at Morat. The oscillation lasted three seconds, and its direction was from south-east to north-west. The shock of Sunday is said to have been felt not only at Fribourg, but in some parts of Canton Berne. These repeated shocks, occurring at such short intervals in places so distant from each other as Zermatt, Fribourg, and Morat, and yet so entirely local and circumscribed, are supposed to indicate considerable subterranean disturbance north of the Alps.

23. M. Jules Ferry gazetted President of the French Ministry, and M. Barthélemy St.-Hilaire Foreign Minister.

— The annual sale of the Belhus hunters held at Sir Thomas Barrett Lennard's park, near Rainham. Thirty-eight hunters were sold for 5,400*l.*—an average of 143*l.* apiece—a result which showed a considerable money loss. The highest price obtained for any one horse was 360 guineas.

— The Pan-Presbyterian Synod, attended by delegates from all countries, assembled at Philadelphia.

— In a billiard match at Brighton W. Mitchell made an uninterrupted break of 1,839, pocketing the red ball 612 times in succession; the largest break on record in England.

— A strike of fishermen engaged in the Grimsby trawling trade, after lasting a month, brought to a sudden termination by the virtual submission of the Smackowners' Association. The men struck against certain reductions from their shares which the owners proposed to insert in the agreements with the men. About 2,000 hands went out on strike, causing the laying up of smacks representing 500,000*l.* of capital. The men presented a firm front, and a prolonged stoppage was expected. The Smackowners' Association, however, unexpectedly passed a resolution to the effect that, owing to the want of unity among the owners, the reforms advocated could not be persisted in, and each member might get his vessels to sea in the manner he thought best.

24. The *New York Herald* published the following telegram from New Bedford, Massachusetts :—

“The Franklin Search Expedition, under the command of Lieutenant Schwatka, returned here. They have discovered and brought southward relics of the two British ships ‘Terror’ and ‘Erebus,’ which sailed from London, under Sir John Franklin, in May 1845. The expedition successfully withstood the greatest amount of cold ever encountered by white men. During 16 days of a sleigh journey extending over a period of 11 months, the average temperature was 100° below freezing point. In the summer and autumn of 1879 the expedition made a complete search of King William's Land and the adjoining mainland, travelling by the route pursued by the crews of the ‘Erebus’ and ‘Terror’ in retreating towards Back's River. They burnt the bones of all remaining above ground, and erected monuments in memory of the dead. Their researches have established the fact that the records of the Franklin Expedition are beyond recovery. They have also learnt that one of Sir John Franklin's ships drifted down the Victoria Straits, and was unwittingly scuttled by the Esquimaux, who found it off

Grant Point in 1849. The expedition have brought away the remains of Irving, the third officer of the 'Terror.' From each spot where graves were found a few tokens were selected which may serve to identify those who perished there. They also secured a board which may be of use in identifying the ship which completed the North-West passage."

25. As Lord Mountmorres was returning to Ebor Hall, from a meeting of magistrates at Clonbur, county Galway, a volley of rifle bullets was discharged at him, and he was found dead at Rutheen, only half-a-mile from his residence.

— A Blue Book issued containing the report of the Government Director on the railways of India. The length of the whole system open for traffic was 8,611 miles, of which 6,073 miles were in the hands of guaranteed companies, 2,363 belonged to the State, and 175 miles to native States. During the year ending March 31, 1880, 395 miles—including the Candahar line—of new railway have been completed. The capital expended on these lines has been 97,327,851*l.* on guaranteed lines, 24,403,797*l.* on State lines, and 1,392,866*l.* on lines in native States. The net revenue from all railways in India had been 5,372,596*l.* That from guaranteed lines 5,062,188*l.* compared with 5,002,028*l.* in the previous year.

27. The last performance of the Ober-Ammergau Passion Play, which during the season had been repeated forty times, and witnessed by 175,000 spectators. The amount received was 104,000*l.*, which is to be divided into four equal parts—one for the construction of a theatre, another for the villagers, a third for the actors, and the remaining fourth to the Communal Schools including the technical schools of wood-carving, drawing, &c.

— According to a comparative table in the *Journal des Débats* giving an average of the last five years' harvests in the different regions of France, the wheat crop this year exceeded the average in the northern, north-western, north-eastern, and south-western departments; it remained about the average in the eastern, southern, and western departments, and in the plains of the centre of France; it fell short of the average in the south-eastern departments and the mountainous districts of the centre. The wheat crops over the whole country taken together the yield was about 2 per cent. above the average.

— At noon a fire broke out among a large number of barges laden with hay, which were anchored in the Neva, above the bridges. The fire spread rapidly, and the barges breaking loose some twenty enormous flaming heaps floated down the stream, endangering all the shipping in the river. The exertions of the land fire brigade were useless, except to play on the heaps of hay from the stone bridges when they were stopped by the buttresses. Two wooden bridges were swung off on one side of the river and saved, much traffic with the islands being thereby stopped. The river police, in tugs and cutters, attacked the flaming heaps, and guided them clear of the vessels.

— A report circulated in Glasgow to the effect that a Nihilist plot has been divulged for the blowing up of the Czar's yacht "Livadia" by means of one of Thompson's machines. The information was circulated by the local police, and had its origin in a communication conveyed to the Russian authorities in London. The statement was precise in all its details, and was to the effect that the supreme council of the Nihilists had ordered the

destruction of the yacht, and that persons whose names were given had been charged with the execution of the design, which included the manufacture by other specified persons of Thompson's clock machines for exploding nitro-glycerine on a given day, according as the index might be set. It was further notified that the attempt to introduce the engine would be made at Glasgow or in default of there at Plymouth; that accomplices were on board the vessel itself; that the machine would be introduced if possible in the ordinary way of business, or by a visitor; and that the place designed for the depositing of the infernal machine would be among the coals or the vital parts of the vessel, or in the baggage of the crew. The original information was confirmed by other statements from different parts of Europe—from Switzerland, from St. Petersburg, and from London. The authorities at Scotland Yard some days previously announced that three Nihilists were on their road to Glasgow with four machines. The Glasgow police declined to interfere, on the ground of etiquette, and the police of Govan, the suburb in which the "Livadia" lay, commenced to watch the vessel. The most serious point of the case was the appearance of three Russians, having no connection with the yacht, at the entrance to the yard, endeavouring to gain admission. This occurred on three several days. The precautions taken, however, proved quite equal to the necessities of the case.

28. The Church Congress, held this year at Leicester, opened under the presidency of the Bishop of Peterborough, who, in his inaugural address traced the rise of the Church Congress as a general and representative assembly in which Churchmen of all order and ranks, all schools of thought, could meet together to confer on Church affairs. Parliament, once virtually a lay convocation, had long since ceased to be exclusively composed of Churchmen, whilst in Convocation only the clergy were represented.

— The Great Foal Stakes at Newmarket won by Mr. C. Brewer's Robert the Devil, beating the Duke of Westminster's Bend Or by a head—both carrying 9st. 5lbs.—and five others. Time 2 min. 25 sec.

29. Mr. Alderman W. McArthur, M.P., elected Lord Mayor of London.

— The final match of the Australian eleven played at the Crystal Palace Ground against the "Players" of England—the Australians winning by two wickets. Score: Players, 1st innings, 90, second, 82; Australians, 1st innings, 133, second, 40 and two wickets.

— M. Kojander, the Russian representative in China, forwarded to the Minister of Foreign Affairs the contents of a letter from Colonel von Prjevalski, the celebrated Asiatic traveller, wherein the letter described his experiences of the Si Fan tribe inhabiting the region of the Hoang Ho (Yellow River), last explored by the intrepid geographer. Despite the obstacles thrown in his way by the Chinese Government and by the natives, as well as by nature itself, Colonel von Prjevalski succeeded in advancing further than all his predecessors, and it was his intention to penetrate and explore the ice regions of the Siu Chan Mountains and press on by this route towards Si Ning. The passage of the mountains, however, proved impracticable, and he was compelled to return by the way he went to the town of Hui De, whence he would make for Si Ning and then strike straight on through the desert of Gobi towards the town of Urga.

— The Comte de Chambord's 60th birthday celebrated in a very unostentatious way by the French Legitimists both in Paris and the provinces—no demonstration or speeches being made.

— The “Italia,” the largest ironclad afloat, launched at Castellamare, in the presence of the King of Italy and the leading members of the vicinity. The “Italia’s” dimensions are 122 mètres in length, 23 mètres in breadth, and nearly ten in depth. Her immersion, when fully armed, will be 9·240 mètres at the stern, 7·720 at the bow. Her displacement will be 14,300 tons. Her engines, made by John Penn and Co., are of 8,000 horse power.

— The Crown Prince and Princess of Prussia went to Kiel to welcome home their second son Prince Henry, who, after a two years’ cruise round the world in the German ironclad “Prinz Adalbert” arrived at that port.

30. The eleventh session of the London School Board opened by a speech from the chairman, Sir Charles Reed, reviewing the action of the past ten years. In 1871 there was efficient school accommodation for 260,000 children; in 1881 there were 495,000 seats, of which 269,000 were provided by voluntary, and 225,000 by Board Schools. The average attendance at the latter was 192,000, and the percentage of those passing the Government examination was over 85 per cent. He estimated the number of children who still escaped instruction of any kind in the metropolis to be nearly 250,000.

— While water was being pumped into the two large tanks at the Crystal Palace which supply the fountains, with a view to the firework display in the evening, one of the tanks gave way, and an aperture appeared 16 feet square, through which the water rushed in a flood. Parts of the tank, weighing several hundredweight, were carried to a distance of 250 feet. One of the servants of the company rushed out to see what was the matter, and was carried away by the water to a distance of 200 yards before he could be rescued. The same thing happened to a man who had just left his cart to take a drink of water at the fountain standing in the centre of the Crystal Palace Parade, but both men were rescued from the water without any serious injury. All the trees and shrubs in the neighbourhood of the water towers were washed up, some of them being carried away, together with about 60 yards of the fence down the Fountain Road, as far as the Sydenham Hill station, a distance of three-quarters of a mile. The fall of the water left a hole in the ground, after the downpour had ceased, to a depth of 16 feet. Damage was done also to the grounds of neighbouring residents. The cause of the disaster was probably the corrosion of one of the diagonal bars which gave strength to the plates of which the tanks are made.

OCTOBER.

1. A Science College, the gift of Sir Josiah Mason, inaugurated at Birmingham, by an address from Professor Huxley on the value of scientific training. The total cost of the benefaction, including site, building, workshops, stock, &c., was 170,000*l*.

— The Melbourne International Exhibition opened by the governor, the Marquess of Normanby, accompanied by the governors of the other Australian colonies.

— The Brewers’ Exhibition of all the plant and products connected with brewing opened at the Agricultural Hall.

2. First Election Commission opened at Macclesfield, followed by Commissions at Oxford, Canterbury, Boston, Sandwich, Gloucester, and Chester.

— Statistics published by the Society for Promoting the Use of Horse Flesh and the Flesh of Asses and Mules as food, show how steadily the consumption of these articles of diet has been increasing in Paris and the provinces since the foundation of the society in 1866. The weight has increased from 171,300 lbs. in 1866 to 1,982,620 lbs. in 1879. In the principal cities of the provinces the consumption of horse flesh may be considered to have fairly taken root. At Marseilles, in 1870, there were 599 horses eaten, 1,031 in 1875, and 1,533 in 1878; at Nancy, 165 in 1873, over 350 in 1876, and 705 in 1878; at Rheims, 291 in 1874, 423 in 1876, and 384 in 1878; at Lyons, 1,839 in 1873, and 1,313 in 1875. In both the latter cases some difficulties had been thrown in the way by the town authorities, as was the case recently at Châlons-sur-Marne, where the Mayor fixed the price of the horse-flesh at a higher rate than that of beef. The average price of horse-meat is from 25 cents. to 30 cents. per lb. Each horse furnishes about 200 kilogrammes (4 cwt.) of meat, which is capable of being prepared in many by no means unappetizing ways, such as *pot-au-feu*, boiled, roast, hashed, haricot, jugged, filet, &c.

3. Seventeen land meetings held in different parts of Ireland, at one of which, at Cork, Mr. Parnell was present, and addressed an audience of at least 30,000 persons.

— A fire broke out in the western extremity of the Louvre buildings known as the Pavillon de Flore, in the apartments inhabited by M. Hérold, the Prefect of the Seine. His wife and mother had to escape with the children through a dormer window on to a balcony. The fire had nearly burnt itself out before the engines could bring any water to bear on it. No damage was done to the surrounding buildings.

4. Garibaldi landed at Genoa, having left Caprera with his son Menotti on learning the arrest of General Canzio. The General had to be carried by his friends from the ship and placed on a mattress. A grand reception was accorded to him by the people, who thronged the streets. His left arm was altogether disabled by rheumatism, his right was wrapped up in a handkerchief.

— Upwards of a thousand fine trees, principally elm, beech, and horse-chestnut, cut down in Kensington Gardens—partly to give air and space to the remaining trees, and partly because the tops of many were decayed and were the cause of danger in high winds. Some of the trees were 100 feet high, and at the base were 3 feet in diameter, and were probably 100 years old and upwards.

— A series of earthquake shocks felt all over Transylvania, especially in the western parts. Rumbling noises were heard, chiefly among the hills. A small railway station near Tövis was overthrown; at Felviney the shocks lasted for two minutes, and many of the public buildings were seriously damaged.

5. The Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants at their annual meeting, held this year at Cardiff, carried unanimously a motion in favour of reduction in the hours of work—the principle of an eight hours' day being established. A guard stated that he had once worked 22 hours and 20 minutes in a day, and 72½ hours in a week and was then refused overtime pay.

— Sculling match on the Thames between Elias C. Laycock, of Sydney, New South Wales, and Thomas Blackman, of Wandsworth, resulting in an easy victory for the Australian. Blackman at starting got off first, but he was quickly overhauled by his opponent, and soon after passing Chiswick the former gave up the race. Laycock then paddled on, passing the Ship Inn at Mortlake in 26 min. 14 sec. from the time of starting from Putney.

— Sir Bartle Frere arrived in England from the Cape of Good Hope, whither he had been sent in 1877 as Governor and High Commissioner, with the special object of carrying out Lord Carnarvon's scheme of a federation of the South African Colonies.

— The third annual meeting of the Library Association of the United Kingdom began its sittings at Edinburgh. The objects of the Society are to obtain full statistics of the various libraries throughout the country, the amendment of the Copyright Act, and devising uniform rules for cataloguing books.

6. The Social Science Congress met at Edinburgh, the inaugural address being delivered by Lord Reay, who took for the main topic of his speech "Social Science applied to International Law."

— Sir Henry Bessemer, F.R.S., presented with the freedom of the City of London in recognition of his services to science.

— Accounts published in the various Russian papers of the terrible distress prevalent in certain parts of the Empire. In the province of Tver, the peasants were said not only to have no rye to sow, but not enough for their daily consumption beyond the end of the month. From the province of Samaro a general exodus had taken place, the population hoping to find food and employment in the adjoining provinces. The granaries of Taganrog were reported to be quite empty, and unless corn could be obtained from abroad the most awful famine during the winter months is anticipated by the authorities.

7. A deputation of more than a hundred land owners and agents had an interview with the Lord Lieutenant and the Irish Secretary at Dublin Castle. The report of what transpired was public, the object of the meeting being to lay before the authorities the condition of affairs throughout the country, and to suggest means for restoring law and order.

— The Rev. Mark Pattison, Rector of Lincoln College, Oxford, speaking at the opening of the Salt Schools at Saltaire, alluded to the strife and ferment always going on in the Northern counties, which he referred to the self-energy and fertility of inventive power of the inhabitants of Yorkshire and Lancashire. In physical qualities the British workman was superior to his rivals, the American perhaps excepted; in morals he was clearly their inferior. The welfare of a nation, he maintained, must not be tested by the value of its exports, but by the way in which it spent its leisure and its earnings.

— Mr. Russell Lowell, the United States Minister, delivered the opening address of the winter session of the Working Men's College. In the course of his remarks he urged the reading of the works of great authors by the aid of dictionaries, as a better mode of acquiring foreign languages than through the medium of a grammar, on which so much time is now wasted.

— At a meeting of the Governors of Guy's Hospital, a resolution was passed by a large majority, including the President, Mr. H. Hucks Gibbs,

Lord Coleridge, Lord Cottesloe, and Sir T. Dyke Acland, calling on Dr. S. O. Habershon, the senior physician, and Mr. J. Cooper Forster, the senior surgeon, to resign, in consequence of the terms of a letter addressed to the Governors by these gentlemen on behalf of themselves and the rest of their colleagues.

8. The following statistics of the estimated wheat production of the United Kingdom, published :—

Year	Acres	Character of the Yield	Assumed Bushels per acre	Available for Consumption after deducting seed	Official prices per Qr. 12 months 1st July to June 20
				Imp. Qrs.	s. d.
1866	3,661,000	Under average . . .	27	11,400,000	5 0
1867	3,640,000	Much under average . .	25	10,390,000	
1868	3,951,000	Much over average . .	34	15,790,000	69 3
1869	3,932,000	Under average . . .	27	12,490,000	51 8
1870	3,773,000	Over average . . .	32	14,100,000	45 11
1871	3,831,000	Under average . . .	27	11,970,000	53 5
1872	3,840,000	Much under average . .	23	10,110,000	55 3
1873	3,670,000	Much under average . .	25	10,550,000	57 1
1874	3,833,000	Over average . . .	31	13,700,000	61 7
1875	3,514,000	Much under average . .	23	9,124,000	46 4
1876	3,124,000	Under average . . .	27	9,665,000	46 3
1877	3,321,000	Much under average . .	22	9,432,000	55 3
1878	3,382,000	Over average . . .	30	11,825,000	54 0
1879	3,056,000	Very much under average	18	5,990,000	41 10
1880	3,070,000	Under average . . .	26	9,114,000	46 7

— A railway accident occurred to the Cologne express due at Berlin at about half-past 12. When about half-way between the Berlin terminus and Spandau, the last halting-place, the engine suddenly left the rails and was precipitated down the embankment, dragging the luggage-waggon with it. Fortunately no one was seriously hurt. On inquiry, it appeared that a rail had been deliberately displaced at a point precisely midway between two watchmen's boxes, and at the place, moreover, where the down night train might be calculated to pass the arriving express. To a lucky chance only was it due that the Berlin train passed the spot a few minutes before the accident.

9. A railway accident, hitherto without precedent, occurred on the Midland line at Kibworth, near Leicester. The Scotch express had for some cause been forced to pull up—and to do so the engine had necessarily been reversed—on starting again, neither the driver nor stoker, both steady men and sober, perceived that they were running backwards until they ran into a mineral train standing half a mile off. No lives were lost, but many passengers were injured—one very severely.

— A sculling match took place on the Thames from Putney to Mortlake between T. Blackman and Henry Clasper, the youngest son of the well-known Tyneside oarsman and inventor of the outrigger. Blackman weighing about 11st. 7lbs., led from the beginning, reaching Hammersmith Bridge in 11 min. 35 sec. and winning easily by a dozen lengths in 25 min. 41 sec. Clasper weighed only 8st. 8lbs., and both wind and weather were favourable to the heavier man, who had also the choice of sides.

10. Dr. M'Cabe, Roman Catholic Archbishop of Dublin, in a pastoral charge read throughout Ireland, declared that the English Government had

shown its readiness to redress the wrongs of the country, pronounced the claims of the Land League unjust, and denounced not only those who commit agrarian murders, but those who fail to express their abhorrence of them with sufficient vigour.

11. Very serious floods reported from various parts of England. The Thames from Oxford to Teddington overflowed its banks in many places, doing much damage. At Maidstone the gas supply was cut off by the rise of the Medway. The valley of the Chelmer, from Chelmsford to Maldon, completely submerged, as were large tracts in the Midland districts.

— The following final balance-sheet of the Indian Mutiny Relief Fund published, the balance having been paid over to the Paymaster-General of the Court of Chancery, the Charity Commissioners having declined to draw up a scheme for application of the amount in hand :—

Balance Sheet from August, 1857, to December 31, 1879.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
To amount of subscriptions	440,763	7	8	By amount of allowances and donations .	307,326	10	4
To interest on securities	140,449	16	3	By advances to sufferers	12,465	10	6
To advances repaid	4,903	9	8	By remittances to India	140,286	18	7
				By expenses of management	20,593	16	6
				By difference of price of securities	877	1	4
				By balance December 31, 1879	104,566	16	4
	£586,116	13	7		£586,116	13	7

— The office of First President of the Mormon community, which had remained vacant since the death of Brigham Young, conferred upon John Taylor, by the Conference assembled in Salt Lake City. At the same time George Q. Cannon (delegate to Congress) was elected first, and Joseph F. Smith second councillor. The latter is a nephew of the original Joseph Smith.

12. The International Postal Congress sitting in Paris agreed to the principle of a parcels post on the basis of a fixed rate of 50 centimes (5d.) per five kilogrammes (10 lbs.) for each country traversed.

— At Newmarket the Cesarewitch Stakes won easily, by four lengths, by Mr. C. Brewer's Robert the Devil, by Bertram, 3 years, 8st. 6lbs. There were 134 subscribers, and 21 horses started, among which the Duke of Beaufort's Petronel, 3 years, 7st. 5lbs., and Lord Rosebery's Cipolata, 3 years, 7st. 6lbs., were the favourites. The latter was second in the race. Time, 4 min. 19 sec. 3.5.

— Cardinal Nina, in consequence of his failing health, relieved of his duties as Secretary of State. The Pope at the same time, as a mark of special favour, requesting him to retain the Prefecture of the Holy Apostolic Palaces.

— The Woestyne-Jung libel case decided at Paris. M. de Woestyne, published an article in the *Gaulois* on missing documents at the Ministry of War, indicating a certain officer whom he accused of having abstracted them, and who, from the description given of him, could only be Colonel Jung. That Colonel Jung was meant is admitted. M. de Woestyne made known that he had derived his information from General Ney. General Ney was consequently called. He declared that he made no accusations. He repeated

one day some scandal about Colonel Jung to M. de Woestyne, who was a friend of his, when they were riding in the Bois de Boulogne together, without for a moment supposing it would be published. M. de Woestyne replied that when anybody tells a journalist anything it is understood that the latter may publish it. This theory even the Court protested against. M. Arthur Meyer, the editor of the *Gaulois*, said he inserted the article because it came from M. de Woestyne, whom he looked upon a guarantee of the genuineness of the accusation. M. de Woestyne was found guilty and sentenced to six months' imprisonment, 1,000 francs fine, and 5,000 francs damages, and the manager of the *Gaulois* was ordered to pay a fine of 500 francs.

13. The Middle Park Plate, for two years old, 6 furlongs, won by Mr. W. S. Crawford's St. Louis, by Hermit—Lady Audley, 8st. 10lbs., by three lengths. Of the 159 entries 17 started. Time, 1 min. 44 sec.

— An International Food Exhibition opened at the Agricultural Hall, Islington, at which various countries were represented, especially by canned provisions, animal as well as vegetable.

— The Leeds Musical Festival opened under the presidency of the Duke of Edinburgh.

— At Stamboul, three hundred armed refugees met with a view of pillaging the grand bazaar. The police, warned beforehand, assembled in great force, and made prisoners the whole band.

14. The foundation stone of the new building for the City of London School laid on the Thames Embankment, to which site the school hitherto situated in Milk Street, Cheapside, built in 1835-6, but endowed in 1442 by John Carpenter, is to be removed.

— The Champion Stakes at Newmarket won by Mr. C. Brewer's Robert the Devil, 8st. 4lbs., in a common canter by ten lengths, defeating the Duke of Westminster's Bend Or (8st. 4lbs.) and two others, the only starters out of 181 subscribers. Time, 2 min. 10 sec.

— Captain Boycott, of Lough Maske House, Mayo, described in a letter to the *Times* the various persecutions to which he had been subjected.

— A large meeting of Irish landowners held in Dublin, and a representation to the Viceroy carried unanimously, urging the adoption of coercive measures throughout the country.

— The following resolution passed at a general court of the Governors of Guy's Hospital :—" Resolved, that Dr. Habershon and Mr. Cooper Forster, having withdrawn the letter of August 13, signed by them on behalf of the medical staff, the Governors do not think it necessary to insist on their resignation. The Governors, however, must, at the same time, record their resolution to maintain in its integrity the power to govern the hospital entrusted to them by law, and this resolution must be accepted by the medical staff."

15. An imposing ceremony, presided over by the German Emperor, and attended by many members of the Prussian and other royal families of Germany, held at Cologne in honour of the completion of the Cathedral.

— The Prince of Monaco abolished the shooting of game throughout his dominions from January 1, 1881, on the ground that the more and more restricted area of land unbuilt on would lead to accidents.

— The four men arrested for complicity in the murder of Lord Montmorres at Clonbur discharged from custody for want of evidence.

16. Mr. Hutchinson, a landlord residing near Skibbereen, fired at on returning home after rent collecting. The shot missed Mr. Hutchinson, but mortally wounded the driver of the car.

— An important rifle match between a London team and one from the Midland counties took place at Sandwell Park, near Birmingham. Nine men shot in each team, using small bore rifles, seven shots each, at 800, 900, and 1,000 yards. The Midland club scored 736 points, against 692 scored by London. Out of the 378 shots fired, the Midland men made 79 bull's eyes against 69 by London; 43 inners against 45; 47 magpies against 45; and 14 outers against 16; only 1 ricochet against 4; and 5 misses against 5. The highest score was by Captain Sweeting, of 6th Surrey Rifles, shooting with a Melford rifle; viz., at 800 yards, 30 points; at 900 yards, 34; and at 1,000 yards, 33.

— The French police broke up the establishments of the Carmelites and Barnabites throughout France, sixteen in number, containing about 200 monks, the principal being in Paris, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Montpellier, and St. Omer.

17. Two-thirds of the sea-port town of Christiansano, in Norway, including the Cathedral Church, destroyed by fire.

— The works of the new port and dockyard at Barletta inaugurated by the Italian Minister of Public Works, and the statue of Massinio d'Azeglio uncovered.

18. At a meeting of the Farmers' Alliance, held at Westminster, which was largely attended by tenant-farmers from all English counties, resolutions were passed affirming that more security must be given to tenants by the Legislature for capital invested in the soil; that the class privileges involved in the law of distress, which gives a preference to the landlord over every other creditor, must be abolished; that the ratepayers must be secured their fair share in county government; that the rates must be more equally distributed between landlord and tenant.

— The Italian Barnabites of Paris addressed a letter of remonstrance to President Grévy against their expulsion from France, reminding him that they came there 23 years ago to evangelize and succour the 30,000 poor Italians living there, that the municipality gave them a site, that they had studiously avoided politics, and that during the siege their house was an ambulance, while several of their members had been military chaplains, one of them being naturalized in recognition of his devotion.

— Instalment of the fifteen new honorary canons appointed by the Bishop of Liverpool. Of these seven were canons of the see of Chester and elected to be transferred to the new diocese. Two canons are to be appointed every year until the number reaches 24. The ceremony took place in the Pro-Cathedral, St. Peter's Church, Liverpool, the Bishop being the installant.

19. A grand banquet given by the Lord Mayor at the Mansion House, to which the principal members of the Municipal Councils of Paris and Brussels were invited.

— The trial of M. Pyat, the amnestied Communist, for his article extolling regicide in general, and Berezowski, the Pole, who fired at the Czar in 1867, in particular, took place in Paris. The article demanded the liberation of Berezowski, who is under sentence of imprisonment for life, and opened

a subscription for presenting him with a pistol. M. Pyat allowed the case to be tried without his attendance. The Public Prosecutor made some sarcastic remarks on his violence in words and caution in deeds as evidenced by his escape to London, when he left in the lurch the mob whom he had incited to the fray. He also commented on the shamelessness of eulogising a man who, himself enjoying French hospitality, attempted the life of a Sovereign on a visit to France. M. Pyat was sentenced to two years' and the publisher of his paper to six months' imprisonment, and both were fined 1,000f.

— Announcement of the intended marriage of M. Roland Bonaparte, sub-lieutenant in the 36th Regiment of the Ligne, and son of Prince Pierre Napoleon Bonaparte, with Mdlle. Blanc, daughter of the late lessee of the gaming-tables at Monaco. The marriage took place on November 17.

20. A heavy fall of snow occurred throughout the midland, eastern, and southern counties of England—in London lying three inches deep. In the northern counties there was a sharp frost.

— The new Opera House at Frankfort-on-the-Maine opened with great state by the German Emperor.

— The scrutiny demanded by the unsuccessful candidate, the Lord Advocate, closed after two days' inquiry in the return of Captain Milne Home (Conservative) by 584 against 581 given to the Lord Advocate (Mr. J. McLaren), on whom two-thirds of the cost of the petition fell.

— The first of a series of nine gala performances given at the Comédie Française in commemoration of the two hundredth anniversary of its foundation. The pieces performed on the first night were "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme" and "L'Impromptu de Versailles," concluding with the recital by M. Got of verses appropriate to the occasion, composed by M. François Coppée.

21. International Balloon Contest took place at the Crystal Palace. The French balloon, that of the Académie d'Aérostation, "Météorologique," ascended at 3.9 p.m.—the English balloon, "Eclipse," a minute later. At 3.49 they were lost to sight, taking a southerly course. At 5.15 the French balloon dropped in Bedhampton grounds, near Cosham (Hants), and the English one about three miles nearer Havant. The capacity of the French balloon was 42,000, and of the "Eclipse" 28,000 cubic feet.

— The Queen approved the promotion of Mr. Herries, C.B., Chairman of the Inland Revenue Board, to be a Knight Commander of the Bath, and the nomination of Mr. Algernon West, Deputy Chairman, and of Mr. Adam Young, Secretary to the Board, to be Companions of the Order. It was understood that these honours were conferred in recognition, not only of general services, but, more especially, of important duties performed in connection with the abolition of the Malt Tax and the substitution of a duty on beer.

— The shock of an earthquake felt throughout Spain and Portugal. At Lisbon it was reported to be violent, with a strong sea. At Zamora and Salamanca it occasioned some alarm, but at Madrid it was very slight, lasting only eight seconds. The weather was fine and clear, but warm for the season.

— The express train from Cologne to Berlin, after passing Dorhmund suddenly left the rails and rushed down an embankment. The engine-driver and one passenger were killed immediately, and 26 passengers more or less severely injured.

— During a trial for forgery at the Central Criminal Court, a letter addressed to the governor of Newgate by a convicted forger named Cherwood. In it the writer affirmed that all the professional forgers in the world could be counted “on your fingers,” and suggested that he should be pardoned and made the chief of a small detective department for the total suppression of forgery.

— The Greek Chambers opened by the King at Athens, on his return from visiting the various courts of Europe. In his speech he declared that the army would not be disbanded until the claims of Greece, as recognised by the Berlin Treaty, were established.

22. A rifle match between the 1st Battalion Scots Guards and the London Rifle Brigade, at Rainham, resulted in some very extraordinary scores. Each team, consisting of 12 men, fired five shots per man at 200, 500, and 600 yards. The Guards scored 343, 331, and 314—Total 988; the volunteers 351, 335, and 286—total 972. Taking the 24 men together, 504 rounds were fired, of which 193 were bulls’ eyes, 156 inners, 81 magpies, 64 outers, and only 10 misses. The highest aggregate score was 99, made by Sergeant Strachan for the Regulars. At the 600 yards’ range Corporal Rothan made for the Volunteers seven consecutive bulls’ eyes.

— With reference to the Chinese opium question the following letter from the Inspector General of the Chinese Imperial Customs appeared in the *Times*:—“The Tientsin Treaty. To the Editor of the *Times*:

“Sir,—It is a pity that a good cause should be marred by inaccuracy as to facts. Statements have been advanced of late, with more or less of precision, to the effect that the legalization of the opium trade was wrung from Chinese fears. At a recent meeting in Birmingham, Lord Elgin is credited in so many words with having ‘extorted’ at Tientsin the legalization of the article in question. There is no truth whatever in the allegation, and I do not think, in fairness to Lord Elgin’s memory, or in justice to all concerned, that I ought to observe silence any longer.

“Jointly with Sir Thomas Wade, our present Minister in China, I was Chinese Secretary to Lord Elgin’s Special Mission. All the negotiations at Tientsin passed through me. Not one word upon either side was ever said about opium from first to last. The revision of the tariff and the adjustment of all questions affecting our trade were designedly left for after deliberation and arrangement, and it was agreed that for that purpose the Chinese High Commissioner should meet Lord Elgin at Shanghai in the following winter. The Treaty of Tientsin was signed on June 26, 1858, the fleet was withdrawn, and Lord Elgin turned the interval to account by visiting Japan and concluding a treaty there.

“In the meantime, the preparation of the tariff devolved upon me, at the desire of the Chinese no less than of Lord Elgin. When I came to ‘opium,’ I enquired what course they proposed to take in respect to it. The answer was, ‘We have resolved to put it into the tariff as “yang yoh,” “foreign medicine.”’ I urged a moderate duty, in view of the cost of collection, which was agreed to. This represents with strict accuracy the amount of ‘extortion’ resorted to. And I may add that the tariff as prepared by me, although it comprises some 300 articles of import and export, was adopted by the Chinese Commissioners without a single alteration, which would hardly have been the case had the tariff contained aught objectionable to them.

"Five months after the signature of the Treaty of Tientsin, long subsequently to the removal of all pressure, the Chinese High Commissioners, the signatories of the treaty, came down to Shanghai in accordance with the arrangement made, and, after conference with their colleagues and due consideration, signed with Lord Elgin the tariff as prepared, along with other commercial articles which had been drawn up, in concert with the subordinate members of the Commission, who had been charged with that duty.

"The Chinese Government admitted opium as a legal article of import, not under constraint, but of their own free will deliberately. I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

"Reform Club, Oct. 20."

"H. N. LAY.

23. The Congress of German political economists which had met during the week at Berlin, terminated its sittings. The chief topic discussed was the commercial union of Germany and Austria. A treaty of commerce was recognised by a large majority to be the safest means, though the Austrian delegates urged the creation of a unity of customs. The Congress further adopted a resolution to the effect that while no restraint whatever should be put on emigration, it would not be conducive to the interests of the German Empire to seek to found colonies anywhere.

24. The Pope has delivered a speech on the wrongs the Church and Sovereign Pontiff had suffered, and are still suffering, at the hands of the Italian Government, which produced a profound sensation. The occasion was the reception given by his Holiness to the civil *employés*, some 600 in number, of the late Pontifical Government, who, refusing to take the oath of allegiance to the King of Italy, have since 1870 been pensioners of the Vatican. After alluding to their constancy and the example of honour which they gave to the age and of which it had so much need, the Pope referred to the subordinate and dependent position assigned by the State to religion and its pastors. His Holiness, after alluding to the national *fêtes* and the establishment of Protestant Schools in Rome, as both signs of the disregard paid to the Papacy and religion, concluded with these words:—"Mindful always of our duties, and knowing what is required for the good of the Church and the dignity of the Roman Pontificate, we shall never acquiesce in the present condition of things, nor shall we cease, as we have never yet ceased, from calling for the restitution of all which by fraud and deceit has been taken from the Apostolic See. For the rest we shall wait with confidence and tranquillity until God, in whose hands is our cause, matures for the Church that day on which He will render justice to her rights."

25. The Vienna Geographical Society issued an appeal for subscriptions for an Austrian expedition under Dr. Emil Holub, who intends crossing the whole length of Africa, from south to north. He will start from the Cape of Good Hope and penetrate to the Zambesi, thence explore the Maruthemambunda territory, the watershed district between the Zambesi and the Congo, visit the lake-sources of the Congo, and from there through Darfur he will try to reach Egypt. Dr. Holub expects the journey to extend over three years. The expenses, he reckons, will amount to about 50,000 florins, 5,000 of which he can himself supply.

26. Before the Committee of the Austrian Delegation the Austrian Foreign Minister, in reply to questions about the state of the Lower Danube, gave details about what had been done in the demolition of the fortresses,

from which it appeared that not much had been done. The excuse given for this was the want of money ; but this excuse could scarcely be accepted, as the Bulgarian Government found money for other purposes. The regulation of the Danube, and the navigation of the Iron Gates would always be regarded as eminently a matter for a common agreement. The States whose territory was touched immediately by the regulation had scarcely an incipient trade, whilst that of Austria-Hungary was represented by 150 steamers and 500 large towing-barges. The casting vote for Austria-Hungary in the mixed commission gave rise to much public discussion, in which the intention was attributed to Austria-Hungary to confiscate the freedom of the Danube navigation, to claim the exclusive supremacy on the Lower Danube, and to crush the riverain States and their commerce.

— At Newmarket, the Cambridgeshire Stakes won by Prince Soltykoff's *Lucetta*, 4 years, 7st. 1lb., by half a length, beating the favourite *Fernandez* and twenty-nine others. Time, 2 min. 11 sec.

— At a meeting in Berlin of the Central Society of Commercial Geography, after a paper by Dr. Fabri, it was unanimously resolved by the Geographers that mass emigration was for Germany a social and economical necessity, and Brazil was indicated as the most advantageous camping ground.

27. The Commission of the Free Church of Scotland, after a long debate, agree by 270 against 202, practically suspending Professor Robertson, on the ground of alleged heresy.

— The following outrage reported from the County Cork : A party of armed men, variously estimated at between twenty and forty, and most of whom were disguised, went to the house of a respectable farmer named Daly, residing at Knocknalyre, near Blarney. They first called Daly up, and, placing a book in his hand, wanted him to swear that he would give up a farm which he had recently taken. Daly would not swear, and the party then fired shots over his head. The farm referred to was previously in the occupation of a man named Edmund Murphy, and in June last Murphy gave up the possession of his holding, preferring to direct his attention to other business in which he had engaged. Mr. Daly rented the farm for grazing, but did not occupy the house. After the armed party left Daly's place they proceeded to the house of Edmund Murphy. They had a car with them, and they obliged Murphy to go with them, and against his will they placed him in possession of the holding he had previously surrendered with his own free will. Daly's cattle were then removed from the land and were turned out upon the road, and, after firing several shots, the marauders went away. A threatening notice was left with Daly, cautioning him against taking the land. Murphy, it is said, is unwilling to retain the place, and has already left the house. No arrests were made.

28. The Prussian Parliament opened by Count Stolberg-Wernigerode, Vice-President of the Ministry, who delivered the Royal Message to a very thin audience. The address was listened to in complete silence, except when the intention of lessening direct taxation to the amount of fourteen millions of marks was referred to.

— On their return from a visit to London, the President and members of the Municipal Council of Paris sent to the Lord Mayor a magnificent bouquet measuring 8½ feet in circumference, and representing the arms of

the City of Paris, with its motto, "Fluctuat nec mergitur," in proper heraldic colours. The ship, which bears so striking a part in the city's arms, was composed in the bouquet of white lilac on a ground of red carnations, and was surmounted by three fleurs-de-lis on a ground of blue cornflowers, with a coronet of gold-coloured chrysanthemums. The motto was in damask rosebuds, with a wreath of oak-leaves and laurel. The groundwork of the bouquet was of white lilac and white carnations, with wreaths, 6 inches deep, of cornflowers, "Souvenir de Malmaison" roses, white chrysanthemums, orchids, and ferns. The bouquet, which was so large that it had to be unpacked in the street before it could enter any door in the Mansion House, was hung with tricolour ribands, with the inscription, "Au Lord Maire, 26 Oct., 1880." It was sent from Paris by special messengers.

29. The city of Hamburg and the surrounding district of Altona, together with several other main revolutionary hotbeds, declared by the Prussian Government to be in a state of siege.

30. The following statement published shows the constitution of the English Bench at the beginning of the new legal year:—

	Raised to the Bench.	Present Age.
Bacon, Vice-Chancellor	July, 1870	82
Baggallay, Lord Justice	November, 1875	64
Bramwell, Lord Justice	November, 1856	72
Brett, Lord Justice	August, 1868	63
Cockburn Lord Chief Justice	November, 1856	78
Coleridge, Lord Chief Justice	November, 1873	59
Cotton, Lord Justice	June, 1877	59
Denman, Justice	October, 1872	61
Field, Justice	February, 1875	67
Fry, Justice	May, 1877	53
Grove, Justice	November, 1871	69
Hall, Vice-Chancellor	November, 1873	66
Hannan, Justice	February, 1868	59
Hawkins, Justice	November, 1876	63
Huddleston, Baron	February, 1875	63
James, Lord Justice	January, 1869	73
Jessel, Master of the Rolls	August, 1873	56
Lindley, Justice	May 1872	52
Lopes, Justice	November, 1876	53
Lush, Justice	November, 1865	73
Malins, Vice-Chancellor	November, 1866	75
Manisty, Justice	November, 1876	72
Phillimore, Sir R.	July, 1867	70
Pollock, Baron	January, 1878	57
Stephen, Justice	January, 1879	51
Bowen, Justice	June, 1879	45

From this list it will be seen that there are eight judges who have attained 70 years and upwards, and eight whose age exceeds 60.

— Rev. T. P. Dale, rector of St. Vedast, Foster Lane, an extreme Ritualist, arrested for refusing to obey a monition of the Court of Arches, and on a *significavit*, issued by Lord Penzance, lodged in Holloway Gaol.

31. A most brutal double murder committed near Chislehurst. Joseph Waller, aged 24, a labourer, after being turned out of the Five Bells publichouse on Saturday night, where he had created a disturbance, was found in a pigstye on enclosed premises belonging to a farmer at St. Mary Cray, and the owner gave information of the fact to the police, who in con-

sequence proceeded to the cottage of Waller for the purpose of apprehending him on the charge of being on the premises for a supposed unlawful purpose. On Waller's arrival there he was met by Police-constable Palmer, who said that he was going to Cray, whereupon Waller replied, "I am going there too," and the pair together went to the police-station. Inspector Higgins and Police-constable Mackay were on duty there when, at 5 p.m., Waller was brought in. At about 4 o'clock Police-constable Mackay had heard shots in the direction of a gamekeeper's lodge, and going thither to ascertain the reason, saw Waller standing outside the house of Edward Ellis, head gamekeeper to Mr. R. R. Berens, J.P. He said, in answer to a question, that he was waiting for "Old Ned Ellis." At the police-station, the charge of being on enclosed premises having been stated to him, Waller said to Police-constable Mackay, "You have a good charge;" and then to Inspector Higgins, "If you have eight men and two stretchers, you go to old Ned Ellis's, and there you will find two dead bodies." The inspector asked, "Who are they?" Waller replied, "Ned Ellis and his wife. You go in at the big gate, down Ned's ride; there you will find Mrs. Ellis with her husband's truncheon under her." Inspector Higgins at once proceeded to Ellis's lodge, and on searching the adjoining woods discovered the dead body of Mrs. Ellis a quarter of a mile from the house, and that of her husband half a mile away. The heads of both were frightfully battered, and it is supposed that Waller had first fired a shot from a gun and enticed Ellis away from the house under pretence that there were poachers in the wood, and then murdered him by a shot from a revolver found on him at the station, completing the deed with the gamekeeper's own truncheon. It is surmised that Mrs. Ellis, anxious at her husband's long absence, went out in search of him, met the prisoner returning, and shared at his hands a similar fate. Ellis was 74 years of age, and had been 50 years in Mr. Berens' employ; his wife was 60, and had been cook 20 years in the same service. The motive of the murder was, without doubt, plunder, as Ellis was reported to be wealthy and to have money hoarded in his lodge. Medical assistance was promptly obtained, but Drs. Matthews and Bull pronounced life extinct. Mrs. Ellis's fingers were broken, and her husband's frightfully smashed, for Ellis, though old, was an active and determined man. Both had horrible gashes upon their foreheads, and each had evidently struggled desperately with the murderer.

NOVEMBER.

1. Garibaldi's journey to Milan is thus related by an eye-witness:—He left San Damiano d'Asti at 10 o'clock in the morning. At the Castiglione station he was met by Signori Torriani, Muszi, Prandina, and Bisconi, the representatives of the committee for the monument to those slain at Mentana. The train left Castiglione amid the acclamations of an immense concourse of people. All the stations along the line were decorated with flowers, bands of music were playing, and crowds of spectators assembled to greet the General as he passed. His journey had the appearance of a triumphal progress. At Novara and Abbiategrasso General Garibaldi's carriage was almost taken by assault. At 2 o'clock the train arrived at

Milan, where an enthusiasm was displayed such as had not been witnessed since the days of the Liberation in 1859. The General, lying at full length, as when he last arrived from Rome, was laid upon a carriage, which, surrounded by an enormous crowd, slowly conveyed him to the Hôtel de la Ville. But such was the crowd that one of the horses fell suffocated to the ground, and on it becoming necessary to detach the others the carriage was drawn by the populace to its destination, which was not reached till half-past 4. Flowers were thrown in showers from windows and balconies as the General passed, and at the Hôtel de la Ville he was received by the members of fifty masonic lodges and by the Syndic, Signor Belinzaghi, who, in the name of the municipality, welcomed him to Milan. As General Garibaldi was unable to go on to the balcony in response to the calls of the crowd assembled, Major Canzio appeared in his stead, and thanked the Milanese for their enthusiastic welcome.

— A young man named Navarre ascended from Courbevoie in a balloon, to which was attached a trapeze in lieu of a car. He was advised to have himself tied on, but declared that, being an acrobat, he could perform without danger, and, holding the trapeze by one hand, he saluted the crowd on starting. On reaching, however, a height of about 300 feet he seized the bar with both hands and appeared motionless, his head leaning on one shoulder. The balloon continued to rise, Navarre not showing the slightest movement, until at the height of about 1,800 feet he lost hold and fell. His body was fearfully mangled by striking the ground, but it is supposed that he was already dead before touching it. The balloon sailed over Paris, approached the ground near the Place St. Michel, and burst about the height of 800 feet. Nobody was hurt by the *débris*, but a news vendor, with his kiosk, narrowly escaped being overwhelmed.

— Freedom and livery of the Haberdashers' Company conferred on Baroness Burdett Coutts in recognition of her judicious and extensive benevolence.

2. A scullers' race for a 100l. a side was rowed over the metropolitan course from Putney to Mortlake, between Elias C. Laycock, of Sydney, New South Wales, and George H. Hosmer, of Boston, United States of America, and after a close match to Hammersmith Mall, resulted in the success of the Australian, the American sculler practically retiring from the contest after he had compassed two miles and a quarter of the distance. Laycock, aged 35, about 6 feet in height, scaled over 12 stone; whilst Hosmer, aged 21, standing about 5 feet 9 inches, weighed less than 10 stone. The American sculler won the choice of station, and elected to take the Middlesex berth, having his opponent on the Surrey side of him. In a few moments Hosmer got away with a slight advantage, which he increased to half a length; Laycock, however, in the best of the tide, reduced the American's advantage, and at Crab Tree Reach had drawn upon his opponent. At Rosebank—one minute—the two were as nearly level as possible, and so continued for some distance. Shortly after Laycock drew away fast, and passed under the Suspension Bridge a length in front of Hosmer, the time being 9 min. 32 sec. The American, however, sculled gallantly onward, and although his style was much against him, once more spurted opposite the Oil Mills, this being his final effort, but he could do no more than overlap the Australian by a foot or two, and as the effort died out he fell astern, and then ceased sculling for a second or two, the race

being virtually over. Passing Barnes Bridge in 21 min. 30 secs., and some four lengths in advance of Hosmer, Laycock reached the Ship a very easy winner by several lengths in 25 min. 17 secs. over the shortened course.

— The following statistics of libraries and volumes at present existing in the various Continental countries published :—

	Libraries	Volumes	Per 100 Inhabitants
Austria	577	5,475,798	26·8
France	500	4,598,000	12·5
Italy	493	4,349,281	16·2
Prussia	398	2,640,450	11·0
Bavaria	169	1,368,500	26·4
Russia	145	952,090	1·3
Belgium	105	609,110	10·4

Among the more prominent of the various libraries are the Bibliothèque Nationale of Paris, with 2,078,000 vols. and 86,000 MSS. ; the Royal Library at Munich, with 800,000 vols. and 24,000 MSS. ; of Berlin, with 700,000 vols. and 15,000 MSS. ; of Dresden, with 500,000 vols. ; of Vienna, with 420,000 ; of Copenhagen, 410,000. Paris itself possesses some very large libraries apart from the Nationale—viz., that of the Arsenal, 180,000 ; Mazarine Library, 150,000 ; the Institute, 80,000 ; the City of Paris Library, 52,000 ; while in the provinces are the libraries of Amiens, 42,000 ; Versailles, 41,000 ; Mans, 41,000 ; Montpellier, 40,500 ; Cambrai, 30,000 ; Toulouse, 30,000.

— General Garfield and Mr. Arthur, Republicans, elected President and Vice-President of the United States by 214 electoral votes against 155 given to General Hancock and Mr. English, the Democrat candidates.

3. The inauguration of the Mentana monument at Milan took place. Everything passed off in perfect order, its charge being entrusted to the Carabineers, the city policemen, the firemen, and the survivors of the Thousand of Marsala. Garibaldi, who had recovered from the fatigue of his journey, was present in an open carriage, accompanied by the Syndic, Count Bellenzachi, and the Deputy Mussi, the president of the committee. The corps of Engineers having made an opening in the wall of the Palace, the carriage was taken on to the platform. The dense throng with which the Piazza was filled saluted Garibaldi with ringing acclamations and waving handkerchiefs. After Signor Mussi had spoken regarding the true meaning of the monument and in praise of the co-operation of the Syndic, who, in the name of Milan, accepted its custody, Major Canzio read for Garibaldi what would appear to have been a somewhat strongly worded discourse against both the Moderates and the Government, in which the General said, “We do not want revolution, but, accustomed to its fatigues, we do not fear it.” Rochefort also made what is described as having been an eloquent speech. He was saluted with shouts of “Viva l’Italia !” “Viva Garibaldi !” which were continued during the whole time he was speaking.

— Consols quoted at 100½, being the first time since May 1853, when they were quoted at 100½, that they have risen above par. In 1852 they at one time touched 102.

5. In Paris eleven unrecognised communities, having about 120 inmates, were dissolved, including the Capuchins, Dominicans (2), Marists, Minorites, Oblates, Redemptorists, Franciscans, Assumptionists, and Sionists. At

3 A.M. the Prefect of Police summoned twenty-two commissaries to receive the necessary warrants and instructions. He told them that the resistance they might encounter in certain cases could not serve the interests of the monks, and could only be imputed to a desire of creating a sensation for political ends; that lay partisans who often, unfortunately, inspired the monks, had a right to criticise the acts of the Government in Parliament or the Press and to institute legal proceedings, but that to resist the police in the execution of their orders was intolerable rebellion. The police, he said, did not discuss orders given them, and incurred no responsibility by carrying them out, discipline and implicit obedience being the honour of the force. There were also dispersions at Nice, Boulogne, Avignon, Annecy, St. Briec, Versailles, Pau, Orleans, Arras, Belfort, Fontainebleau, and numerous other places. At Arras the troops guarded the approaches of the monastery. At Annecy the mob applauded the Decrees. At St. Briec there were conflicting cries, and the bishop issued from his palace to enjoin calmness and moderation. At Le Mans the bishop escorted the expelled Capuchins to his palace. At Lyons the funeral of the artisan who died from a blow attributed to a Clerical was escorted by several thousand persons, and there were cheers for the Decrees. At Montauban some stones were thrown at the commissary's cab. At Tarascon, however, the Premonstratensians are standing a regular siege. The troops have transformed the attack into a blockade, and are apparently content to starve out the garrison. They refused a request to allow fresh provisions to pass through the lines, but allowed non-combatants to retire, bearing with them vehement protests addressed to the Judges and to the newspapers. The garrison, lay and clerical, was said to be victualled for a week. On the morning of the second day, however, the doors were opened without the aid of the military, at the demand of the police commissary. At the close of the day, of the 384 monasteries of France, with 7,400 monks, only the Carthusians and a few of the Trappists remained.

6. The scullers' match for 200*l.* a side, between Elias C. Laycock, of Sydney, New South Wales, and J. H. Riley, of Saratoga, United States of America, was rowed on Saturday afternoon from Putney to Mortlake, and resulted, after an apparently good race for upwards of two miles, in a third and easy victory for the Australian. Riley was a few years younger than his opponent, but about the same height and weight. In starting, the American gained a slight advantage, which he increased to two lengths, and at the end of the first half-mile was still further in advance, which he maintained during the next half-mile. At the Crab Tree Laycock quickened the pace, and so rapidly gained on his opponent that at Hammermith Bridge (9 min. 15 secs.) the American was only three-quarters of a length in advance; but he once more recovered his advantage, and entered Corney Reach a length and a half in front. At Chiswick Mall the Australian made a fresh spurt, and before the church was reached was leading by two lengths. The position never afterwards changed, Laycock passing the winning-post an easy winner by about two and a half lengths in 25 min. 8 secs.

— At a six days' pedestrian match at the Agricultural Hall, Rowell, the English "champion," completed 566 miles—the longest distance on record in the time. Littlewood, the second man, scored 470 miles, and Dobler 450, in the six days.

— A congratulatory banquet given to Sir Bartle Frere at Willis's Rooms, Sir Richard Temple presiding.

8. Prince Leopold, in the name of the Queen, in a ceremony lasting barely ten minutes, unveiled the Temple Bar Memorial, the erection of which, at a cost variously estimated between 12,000*l.* and 20,000*l.*, had given rise to much comment and criticism. The Memorial was designed by Mr. Horace Jones, the City Architect; the heraldic griffin which surmounts it was the work of Mr. C. B. Birch, A.R.A.; and the figures of the Queen and Prince of Wales by Mr. Boehm, R.A.

— The Society of Trade and Industry at Bremen, after four days' thorough consideration of the subject, agreed to recommend the Senate of Hamburg to express to the allied Governments its readiness to enter the Customs Union of the Empire, and this for the reasons that its present isolation is contrary to the nature of perfect national unity, and that a step which in the course of things is inevitable will be all the easier resolved upon.

— Mdlle. Sarah Bernhardt made her first appearance in New York, at Booth's Theatre, in "*Adrienne Lecouvreur*," before an overflowing audience, including many leading persons. There were crowds outside throughout the evening. The adjacent streets were illuminated with electric lights. She was three times called before the curtain at the conclusion of the play and warmly applauded, and later was serenaded at midnight at the Albemarle Hotel, a large crowd cheering her.

9. Alderman McArthur, M.P., formally installed as Lord Mayor, Mr. Gladstone and the principal Cabinet Ministers attending his inaugural banquet at the Guildhall.

— Agram, the capital of Croatia, visited by the first of a series of earthquakes. The cathedral and the church of St. George fell in, the Archbishop's palace and most of the public buildings rendered uninhabitable, and immense damage to almost every street in the city. The loss of life was estimated at only one person killed, but many were injured. Like all such great shocks of earthquake, this one extended over a large area. From Laibach, Marburg, Klagenfurt, Kanizza, Serajevo, Derwent, Brod, Pola, Trieste, Cilli, and the region of the river Drave, intelligence arrived of more or less severe shocks about the time of the first great shock in Agram. Two mud volcanoes declared themselves in this neighbourhood, and several hot springs burst out. The earthquake was also felt in both Vienna and Pesth, but so slightly that it attracted the notice of only a few persons. The direction of the motion was everywhere the same, from north-east to south-south-west. As far as could be ascertained from subsequent information the movement extended from the 44th to the 48th degree north latitude, and from the 32nd to the 37th degree of east longitude (Ferro). The Danube appears to have been its northern and eastern limit in Hungary. Further shocks were felt on the 12th and succeeding days, the result being the total ruin of one half of the city and the temporary abandonment of the remainder by the affrighted citizens.

11. The Senate of Cambridge University rejected, by 185 votes to 145, a proposal to relax the present obligation on candidates to satisfy the examiners in Greek, a proper substitute (French and German) being provided for the language omitted.

— A scandalous scene marked the commencement of the sitting of the French Chamber. M. Baudry d'Asson, a Vendean Legitimist, had been visited on Tuesday with exclusion for fifteen sittings for styling the Cabinet,

in a speech which he was reading, "Un gouvernement de crocheteurs." As he refused to withdraw, the House rose, in accordance with the standing order as to contumacy of this kind. On reassembling M. Baudry d'Asson took his usual seat. M. Gambetta, with great courtesy, invited him to withdraw, telling him he was allowed a quarter of an hour to reflect and take the advice of his friends. When the interval had elapsed the questors went up and requested him to leave. M. Baudry d'Asson refused, and his fellow-Legitimists collected round him to protect him. The President begged the galleries, which were becoming excited, to remain quiet, but a tumultuous scene occurred on the floor. Deputies left their benches and exchanged exclamations, the loud clang of the President's bell producing no effect. At last M. Gambetta declared the sitting suspended. The hall was nearly empty, but M. Baudry d'Asson was immovable. On resuming the sitting the President ordered the galleries to be cleared, and the military commandant to be sent for. The spectators withdrew, but not without murmurs, some of the Diplomatic Corps complaining of the unceremonious way in which the ushers carried out their orders. Colonel Pin, with twenty soldiers, entered the hall, but the Legitimists prevented their getting at the delinquent. The colonel was forced to fight for every inch. One of his men had his epaulettes torn off, and the men were sharply apostrophised. Puzzled what to do, they advanced with visible hesitation. At last, amid great vociferation, they seized on M. Baudry d'Asson, who resisted to the utmost, and carried him to the room assigned for such offenders.

12. The Boycott relief expedition, composed of Orangemen from the North, arrived without accident or hindrance at Lough Mask House. Great precautions had been taken all along their route to prevent any collision with the Land Leaguers, and a large force of soldiers and police was stationed round and on Lord Erne's property, of which Captain Boycott is the agent.

— Mr. Henry Wheeler, son of the agent to Mr. Lloyd, brutally murdered near Limerick Junction, within sixty yards of the boundary line of Tipperary County.

— A serious mutiny occurred among the convicts in Dartmoor Prison, at Princetown, Devon. The principal warder, named Westlake, on visiting the gang in the quarry, was attacked by one of the prisoners, who called upon the others to join him. Westlake received a heavy blow, severely lacerating the side of his head. Two men attempting to escape were shot by the warders, and one of them, James Bevan, the ringleader, killed. The other prisoners were almost immediately secured. It is said that the authorities had heard rumours of an intention on the part of the convicts to disable a few officers, seize their rifles, and shoot the rest.

— After a trial lasting nearly a week, the St. Petersburg Military Tribunal pronounced judgment on the sixteen men and women accused of political conspiracies, murders, and peace-imperilling machinations in connection with the Nihilist movement. The trial throughout was of a very sensational character, as the accused continually interrupted the Court, and some of them broke into violent protestations, declaring that their condemnation and deaths would not in the least intimidate the party. Five of the prisoners, Kiratkofsky, Shiraieff, Tischanoff, Okladskoi, and Priesnakoff, were sentenced to the loss of all their civil rights and to be hanged by the neck, while the other eleven, including three women, were likewise to forfeit all their civic *status* and be put to penal servitude for periods varying from fifteen years

to the remainder of their lives. The sentences have been confirmed with the exception of those pronounced on Shiraieff, Tischanoff, and Okladskoi, whose death penalties have been commuted into lifelong imprisonment. Kiratkovsky and Priesnakoff were hanged at St. Petersburg. The two Nihilists executed were concerned in the fatal explosion at the Winter Palace which proved so destructive to the Finland Guards.

15. An exhibition of engineering machinery and products opened at the Agricultural Hall, chiefly interesting from the novelties displayed. Amongst them a pulverising machine, a reversible rock drill, cloth-cutting and boot-making machines were the most noticeable. Two new metals were also exhibited—arguzoid, a new alloy intended to supersede silver-plating and nickel-plating, and “HP” iron, specially used in the manufacture of “HP” horse-shoe nails.

— The Right Hon. J. Bright, M.P., elected Lord Rector of Glasgow University in succession to Mr. Gladstone, whose term of rectorship has expired. The Conservative and Independent students started Mr. Ruskin, and he received 814 votes as against 1,128 for Mr. Bright. This made a majority of 314 for Mr. Bright, whose votes were more than 200 behind the number Mr. Gladstone received in 1877, when he defeated Sir Stafford Northcote. Then, however, the Independents voted with the Liberals, whereas on this occasion they went with the Conservatives.

— The boat race for the Championship Challenge Cup and a stake of 200*l.* a side, between Edward Hanlon, of Toronto—the Champion of Canada, the United States, and England—and Edward Trickett, of Sydney, New South Wales, who, after defeating Sadler, of Putney, in 1876, claimed to be Champion of the World, rowed from Putney to Mortlake, and resulted in a ridiculously easy victory for the Canadian sculler, strength proving no match for skill. After a level start, Trickett's more rapid stroke seemed to drive his boat to the front; but at the end of the first half-mile Hanlon was fully a length ahead, and from that point there was never any doubt as to the result. He passed under Hammersmith Bridge in 9 min. 35 secs., two lengths and a half in advance. Opposite the Doves, Trickett, who had been taken wide of his opponent as they passed Biffen's yard, came in under Hanlon's stern, whereupon the latter, who was fully three lengths in front, stopped and looked about him, this being the first of several antics in which he indulged, and which, though perhaps common in Canada and America, have not hitherto signalled sculling races on the metropolitan river. Owing to this stoppage, Trickett reduced the gap between the boats; but Hanlon, who of course had the race in hand, pulled a couple of dozen sharp strokes, and having regained his former lead, lay flat down on his back in his boat opposite the Oil Mills, as if to show that he at least was not troubled at the spot where the Australian Laycock had recently rowed down his three opponents. When Trickett came within a length and a half of him Hanlon sat up and sculled away again, amid general laughter ashore and afloat, and after he had regained a lead of three lengths, pulled first one scull and then the other alternately, exactly as he had done just before starting—a water frolic which in many cases would lead to a capsize. The race had now become a mere farce, for Hanlon stopped no less than five times before he reached Barnes Bridge, under which he passed in 21 min. 40 secs., nearly three lengths ahead of the Australian, who, though beaten, never relaxed his efforts, and sculled on pluckily after the Canadian. Continuing the same distance in advance of

Trickett to the finish, Hanlon breasted the flag-post at a paddle, a very easy winner by three lengths, in 26 min. 12 secs., the Australian being just 10 seconds behind him.

16. An appeal made by Canon Gregory for a sum of 2,500*l.* to purchase a great bell of about 12 tons for St. Paul's Cathedral. In his letter he gave the following statistics of the principal cathedral bells :—"At Olmutz there is a bell which weighs nearly 18 tons ; at Vienna there is one almost as heavy ; at Sens the great bell weighs 15 tons ; at Notre Dame, Paris, nearly 13 tons ; at Magdeburg, the same weight ; at Cologne and Amiens, 11 tons ; at St. Peter's, Rome, 8 tons ; while in England we find a bell at York which weighs nearly 11 tons, and one at Westminster of more than 13½ tons."

18. The first series of heats of the International Sculling Regatta rowed between Putney and Chiswick, the winners in the trial heats being E. C. Laycock, of Sydney, New South Wales ; Wallace Ross, St. John's, New Brunswick ; G. H. Hosmer, Boston, U.S.A. ; and E. Trickett, Sydney, New South Wales.

19. A proposal made to the Dominion Government to construct a break-water across the Straits of Belle Isle, and so join Newfoundland to the mainland. The breakwater proposed would be twelve miles in length, twenty-five feet in breadth, and rise to a height of ten feet above high-water mark, and the estimated cost would not exceed six millions. A probable result of the measure, if carried into execution, would be to intercept the stream of cold water which, flowing from the arctic regions along the coast of Labrador, passes through the Straits of Belle Isle into the St. Lawrence, carrying with it numerous icebergs. The effect upon the climate of both Canada and Newfoundland would be difficult to foresee.

— In the first of the second series of heats of the International Scullers' Match, Wallace Ross, St. John's, New Brunswick, and George H. Hosmer, Boston, U.S.A., defeated Riley, Saratoga, and W. Nicholson, Stockton-on-Tees ; and in the second heat, E. C. Laycock, Sydney, New South Wales, and Warren Smith, Halifax, Nova Scotia, defeated Edward Trickett, Sydney, New South Wales, and John Hawdon, Newcastle-on-Tyne.

— The town hall at Shrewsbury took fire, and at midnight the destruction of the building was complete. Many valuable books and documents were destroyed, but the collection of pictures, mostly portraits of Shropshire celebrities, was saved. Several persons narrowly escaped with their lives. The building was situated in the market square, and was erected of stone, in the Doric style, about forty years ago. The assizes for the county were held in it, as well as all the corporate meetings.

20. The final heat of the International Scullers' Race rowed from Putney to Mortlake with the following results :—

1. E. C. Laycock, Sydney, New South Wales .	£500 prize.
2. Wallace Ross, St. John's, New Brunswick .	300 „
3. G. H. Hosmer, Boston, U.S.A.	140 „
4. Warren Smith, Halifax, Nova Scotia . . .	60 „

Won easily, by ten or twelve lengths, in 26 min. 42 secs.

— In a committee room of the House of Lords, Lord Penzance, sitting as Dean of Arches, issued his *significavit* to the Court of Chancery against the Rev. R. W. Enraght, of Bordealeys, Birmingham, and the Rev. S. F. Green, of Miles Platting, Manchester, for contumacy and contempt. A third case, taken at Lambeth, was against the Rev. J. B. de la Bere, vicar of

Prestbury, near Cheltenham. He had been suspended, but paid no attention to the order, and continued his illegal ritual. For these two ecclesiastical offences the promoter prayed that he might be deprived of his cure of souls. The Court reserved judgment.

22. The new Savings Banks Act, proposed and carried by Mr. Fawcett, the Postmaster-General, came into operation. Under it any person may, through a Post-Office Savings Bank, invest small sums in Consols and other Government securities. The sums so invested must not be less than 10*l.* or more than 100*l.* in any one year. Each investor of 50*l.* may have a stock certificate for the sum with the coupons attached.

23. Information received from Australia of an attack upon a British steamer by natives of the Solomon Islands, South Pacific. The encounter was of a sanguinary nature, no fewer than fifty-two persons having been killed, including Captain Ferguson, master of the steamer which sustained the attack. The "Ripple" arrived at Brisbane on September 20, in charge of the mate. That officer reported that the steamer visited Bougainville Island, one of the Solomon group, on August 8, in the course of a trading cruise. They bartered with the natives during the whole of the day, and remained at anchor overnight. Early on the following morning the islanders flocked down in large numbers and went on board the ship, when trading was again engaged in. Suddenly the natives turned against the crew, and took possession of the deck of the vessel, the attack being so sudden and general, and the surprise being so complete, that it was evident it had been previously planned. Captain Ferguson, who was in his cabin at the time, hearing the noise on deck, looked out of the cabin door, and being observed by the natives was struck by a tomahawk in the neck and killed on the spot. The crew soon rallied from the surprise into which they had been thrown, and a desperate encounter took place. Most of the crew were well armed, and used their weapons vigorously, and, after a prolonged struggle, the natives were driven from the deck, leaving their dead and wounded behind. Fifty were found to have been killed in the conflict, whilst among the wounded were a woman and eight Kanakas, one of whom afterwards died. Of the crew of the steamer, the first mate (Mr. Davis), the chief engineer, the steward, and a passenger named Pense, received wounds, but the only one killed was the captain. Mr. Davis took charge of the vessel, and navigated her for Duke of York's Island, where her Majesty's ship "Conflict" was fallen in with, and a report of the attack made to the commander.

24. The *New York Herald*, having taken much trouble and pains to investigate the sources and destinations of immigrants to the United States, published the following results:—During the year ended June 30, 1880, there were 457,257 immigrants brought into the United States. Of these 99,706 came through British America, most of them arriving at Port Huron, Michigan. Germany sent the next largest number, 84,638; and Ireland next, 71,603. England contributed 59,454; Scotland 12,640; and the total contributions from the British Islands were 144,876. Sweden sent 39,186, Norway 19,895, Austria 12,904, Italy 12,327, Denmark 6,576, Switzerland 6,156, Russia 4,854, Hungary 4,363, France 4,313, and China 5,802. About three-fifths of the total immigration are males, and seven-tenths of the arrivals are at New York. Since reliable records have been kept by the Government—July 1, 1855—there have been 5,924,492 immigrants landed in the United States. In New York city the records

begin in 1847, and since May 5 of that year there have been 5,857,025 arrivals. Whence they come is shown by the following statement—Ireland, 2,042,046; Germany, 2,195,398; England, 761,751; Scotland, 167,180; Sweden, 136,920; France, 112,910; Switzerland, 89,827; Italy, 57,028; Norway, 54,050; Holland, 41,100; Denmark, 39,728; Wales, 32,383; Russia, 30,966; Bohemia, 17,239; Austria, 113,470; Poland, 11,201; Belgium, 10,866; West Indies, 10,021; Spain, 9,694; Hungary, 4,338; South America, 3,509; all other, 15,400; total, 5,857,025. Whither they go is not so readily ascertained, but records of the destination of those arriving at New York since August 1855, embracing the announced destinations of ,906,985 persons show :

Sections	Number	Per cent.
New York	1,572,342	40.99
New England	303,806	8.25
Middle States	569,249	14.83
Western States	1,226,026	31.95
Pacific States and Territories	106,237	2.77
Southern States	59,848	1.21
Aggregate	3,837,508	100.00

Of the remainder, 70,991 went to Canada, 1,427 to New Brunswick, and the others to the West Indies, South America, Australia, China, and other foreign countries; and of 22,788 the destination was not ascertained.

25. Sir Theodore Martin elected Rector of St. Andrew's University by 113 votes against 68 given to Mr. E. A. Freeman the historian.

— M. Labiche, the Vaudevilliste, received as member of the French Academy as the successor to M. Silvestre de Sacy, the eminent Orientalist.

— The marriage of Mr. Joel Hembree and Miss Jane Dale, of Roane County, Tennessee, drew together a large company of their friends and relatives. After the ceremony the company was invited to the house of Colonel Dale, the bride and bridegroom in the meantime withdrawing. The evening was spent in festivities. Another supper was served. After the second meal several guests began complaining of illness, but it was laughed off, and the gaiety continued. About eleven o'clock a sudden lethargy seemed to overtake the whole company, and in a few minutes twenty-seven were unconscious. The few who retained consciousness set themselves at work to resuscitate their companions, but without avail. Twelve were removed to other houses in the neighbourhood, and, as the news spread, the whole country around was aroused with excitement, as nearly every prominent family had members present at the fatal feast. Such medical aid as could be summoned could give little relief, and two days after the occurrence six of the wedding guests were dead. Robert Dale, the bride's brother, died next day. Mike May, a relative of the groom, died in a few hours. Albert Gallagher and Miss Matty Lovelace, well-known young people, died next day. Two young girls, Emma Peters and Kate Lowey, died within twenty-four hours. Colonel Dale and his wife were very low, and their death was momentarily expected. The cause of the tragedy was the use of arsenic instead of salt in seasoning the chickens. Colonel Dale had purchased a quantity of arsenic a day or two before to kill crows, and carelessly left it in the kitchen, and a servant had mistaken it for salt, and hence the fatal results.

26. At noon Dervish Pasha, commanding the Turkish army, surrendered Dulcigno to the Montenegrins, who occupied the town as well as the surrounding positions.

— The Common Law Courts closed in consequence of the funeral of the late Lord Chief Justice Cockburn at Kensal Green Cemetery. Nearly all the judges, many of the nobility and leading barristers, and an immense concourse of people, attended.

27. The action for libel brought by General de Cissey against M. Laisant and M. Rochefort, who in their respective journals had charged him with corrupt practices whilst Minister for War, terminated in the conviction of the accused, who were each sentenced to pay a fine of 4,000 francs and 8,000 francs damages. A great popular demonstration in favour of M. Rochefort was made on his coming out of court.

— An Extraordinary Gazette published, after the return of the Ministers from the Council held at Windsor Castle, summoning Parliament for despatch of business on January 6, 1881.

— Cairo plunged into profound consternation by the discovery of an appalling crime—or rather series of crimes—perpetrated in that city by a religious recluse, Sheikh Hamuda Berda, hitherto enjoying a high reputation for sanctity, and even popularly credited with supernatural powers of extraordinary efficaciousness in the way of curing female patients by holy spells imparted to him by the Prophet. Women were wont to make pilgrimages from all parts of Lower Egypt to the house of this supposed saint, in order to solicit his intercession with Allah on their behalf. The wife of an Egyptian officer betook herself to the sheikh's residence for this purpose. When, however, several hours had elapsed without anything having been heard or seen of her since she entered Hamuda's doors, her husband applied to the Cairo police for assistance to discover her whereabouts, and a rigid search was forthwith instituted in the holy man's domicile. To the horror of the unfortunate officer, his wife's body was found, with several other female corpses, thrust into a huge cistern standing in the sheikh's garden. The cistern, in fact, was brimful of murdered women. Hamuda Berda, arrested on the spot and conveyed to prison, subsequently confessed to the *cadi* that it had been his practice for some time past, whenever consulted by a female possessed of rich jewels or other portable property of value, to invite his visitor to take a turn with him in the garden, where he would then proceed to strangle her, despoil her remains, and fling them into his cistern.

28. The Bishop of Rochester, preaching at St. Paul's, Lorrimore Square, Walworth, announced at the close of his sermon that the living would be filled by an Evangelical clergyman, and that what was illegal in the services would have to be discontinued. A great commotion instantly followed—loud hisses on one side, shouts of applause on the other. On his way to the vicarage the Bishop was followed and hooted by a large crowd, and but for the interposition of the police would have been assaulted.

— In Gibraltar Bay some officers sailing in the bay in the yawl "Ariel," belonging to the officers of the 93rd Sutherland Highlanders, were unable to get her back to her moorings off the New Mole before dark. Shortly after 6 o'clock an attempt was being made to tow the yacht up against a strong tide which was setting into the bay by means of the dingy, in which were Mr. J. Campbell and Private Buchanan, 93rd Sutherland Highlanders. The "Ariel" was at the time down the bay inside the outer line of hulks; it

was quite dark, and the storm which had been gathering all day was just breaking over the Rock. While the boat was already towing, a sudden puff filled the yacht's sails and surged her ahead, the strain of the towrope pulling the dingy's stern under and filling her with water without a moment's warning. Its occupants were precipitated into the water, and both the yacht and boat drifted rapidly away from them. Up to this time Mr. F. Aitken, 93rd Sutherland Highlanders, had been at the helm of the "Ariel," but, seeing what had happened, he put it hard over, so as to throw the vessel up in the wind, and without an instant's hesitation he jumped overboard as he was to the assistance of his comrade. In the meantime Mr. A. Middleton, 93rd Sutherland Highlanders, rapidly divested himself of his clothes, and, seizing a lifebuoy, followed with but little delay. Mr. Campbell and Buchanan had struck out for the vessel, but the tide was strong against them, and Mr. Campbell soon became exhausted. When reached by Mr. Aitken he was just sinking, and was actually seized by him under water. By the time Mr. Middleton arrived he was himself exhausted, and Mr. Campbell still continuing to struggle, all three were for a time in a most perilous position, the whole of them sinking beneath the water more than once together with the buoy. Happily, Mr. R. Orde, 2nd Battalion Rifle Brigade, was also on board the "Ariel," and, acting with great judgment, he let go the anchor as soon as possible, and then, seeing that alone he could be of no assistance, he swam out to the dingy, which was floating full of water some forty yards off, and managed to push her down about the same distance to the spot where the three were struggling in the water. Mr. Campbell having been got to hold on to the gunwale of the boat, she was then hauled in to the "Ariel" by the towrope, which, luckily, had remained attached to her; and Mr. Campbell, now totally unconscious, was got on board. It was only then that Mr. Aitken was heard calling out, and it was seen that in place of coming in with the boat he had remained floating with the lifebuoy. Steps were at once taken to rescue him, Mr. Orde and Buchanan proceeding in search of him in the dingy, partially emptied for the occasion, and he was picked up in a very exhausted condition about 250 yards from the yacht, after having been in the water for at least twenty minutes. After being taken on board Mr. Campbell soon recovered consciousness, and about half an hour later the yacht was boarded by Captain S. Buckle, colonial engineer, who had come out in search of her from the New Mole on board the steam launch. There is no doubt that but for Mr. Aitken's prompt and gallant assistance Mr. Campbell would have been drowned, and it is more than probable that Mr. Aitken would have been unable to effect his rescue without the courageous help afforded by Mr. Middleton, while Mr. Orde, by means of his cool judgment, was enabled to bring them all help at a most critical moment.

— The following account of an earthquake in Scotland furnished by the Duke of Argyll to the Editor of the *Times* :—

"Sir,—An earthquake shock was felt here on Sunday evening at about 5.47 P.M. As the severity of this shock seems to have been very considerable, it is a matter of some scientific interest to know how wide has been the area affected. It is a well-known law affecting such shocks that they are most severe in very solid buildings and less severe in buildings which are less substantial. This house is particularly massive, and the tremors of the earthquake seem to have been propagated through its walls with corresponding violence. One person

writing at a table found it difficult to keep her seat ; the shaking seemed as violent as that of a carriage in an express train. A dog in the room showed much alarm. The noise was very loud, and is described as a mixture of crackling and rumbling. The shock came distinctly from the south, and the undulations were of such amplitude that the movement of the walls in a large room was visible to the eye. Another person in the house was affected with the sensation of sea-sickness. A second shock of a much slighter character was felt at about 11 p.m. Earthquakes have been felt in this part of Scotland at various times, and it said that during the great earthquake at Lisbon in the last century the waters of Loch Awe were violently agitated. In general, however, the shocks are feeble, although always accompanied with a loud and alarming noise. The shock of Sunday last seems to have been much the most violent which has been felt during the present century,

“ Your obedient servant,

“ Inverary Castle, November 30.”

“ ARGYLL.

29. In the place of Mr. Watkin Williams, promoted to the Bench, Mr. Rathbone, Liberal, elected for Carnarvonshire by 3,180 votes against 2,151 given to Mr. Nanney, a local Conservative.

— The meeting of the Common Law Judges, adjourned from 27th, resumed the consideration of the questions submitted to them by the Lord Chancellor relative to the abolition of the chiefships of the two Courts of Common Pleas and Exchequer and the fusion of the three Common Law Divisions, which are to be called the Queen's Bench Division. The opinion of the Judges was in favour of the proposals.

— A sculling match for 200*l.* a side, over the Thames championship course from Putney to Mortlake, took place between Edward Trickett, of Sydney, New South Wales, and Wallace Ross, of St. John's, New Brunswick. Ross was greatly the favourite at starting. Although only rowing thirty-four strokes a minute to Trickett's thirty-nine, he drew away from his opponent, and off the Bishop's grounds was three lengths ahead. Shortly afterwards Trickett began to gain ground, and at Hammersmith the two were nearly level. Just above the bridge Trickett fouled Ross (who claimed the foul), and eventually won by three lengths ; but the umpire allowed Ross's claim, and ordered the race to be rowed again.

— Thomas Wheeler, convicted of the murder of Mr. Ainstee on August 22, hanged at St. Albans.

— According to the report of the Irish Church Temporalities Commissioners there was no available surplus in hand, only an annual income of 574,219*l.*, the capital value of which was 12,189,728*l.*, and 200,000*l.* the estimated value of unconverted glebes and uncollected arrears.

30. The Berlin police warned the Berlin booksellers that all copies of Heine's works containing the “*Schloss Legende*,” a poem published forty years ago, and now discovered to contain Socialistic doctrines, would be seized and destroyed.

— A curious story sent by the *Times* correspondent at Constantinople respecting the agitation against the Sultan by the ex-Khedive of Egypt. Ismail's wives on their arrival in the Bosphorus were refused permission to land. According to the ex-Khedive this is contrary to the Sacred Law, and thus the Sultan's right to the Khalifate is at an end.

DECEMBER.

1. A fire broke out in the Government tobacco factory at Naples, and after burning fiercely for some hours totally destroyed the buildings and their contents. In order to save the historic church of San Pietro Martire, it was deemed advisable to pull down the adjoining buildings. No lives were lost, but not fewer than fifteen firemen were severely hurt. A large number of men and women were thrown out of employment, and the loss sustained was estimated at from 60,000*l.* to 80,000*l.*

— The medallion of the Royal Humane Society unanimously voted to Thomas Lewis, a lad of fifteen, midshipman in the mercantile marine, for the following act of bravery—A party, consisting of the lad, his sister, several cousins, and a nurse, nine in all, were proceeding in a small boat to a sailing boat lying off Hythe, when the boat capsized, and all were precipitated into the water. All would probably have been drowned but for the presence of mind of Lewis, who first of all rescued the children, the eldest of whom was under eleven years of age, and the youngest an infant, and then went to the assistance of the nurse and his sister, who had become unconscious, and placed them in safety. He then swam to another of the party, a little boy, who was clinging to the boat, which was drifting out to sea, and took him also to shore.—The medallion was also given to Thomas Langley, a miner, for saving four persons under the following circumstances: During a violent gale of wind a Dutch galliot was seen steering bow on to a dangerous reef off the village of Seaton Sluice, on the coast of Durham. Being warned by signal to avoid the rocks, she attempted to change her course, broached to, and was immediately hurled on the rocks beneath Crag Point. The captain, in endeavouring to jump with his wife and child on to the rock, was swept away and drowned, leaving the woman and child, with two sailors, on board in a helpless condition. In this juncture Langley volunteered to be lowered over the cliffs, a height of sixty or seventy feet, by means of a whip line. Taking a spare rope in his hand, he succeeded in reaching the ship's deck in safety and rescued all on board, very much exhausted.—The medallion was also awarded to William Morton Jones for saving Griffith Jones, who fell off a wall into the Menai Straits at Carnarvon. The salvor, who has lost one leg, on witnessing the accident, threw aside his crutches, and without staying to divest himself of any of his clothing, jumped down a distance of 12 feet into the water, and took the boy to the wall of the quay, where he had to support him for fifteen minutes until the arrival of a boat.

2. H. M.'s ship "Raleigh" arrived at Plymouth, having on board twenty-two of the crew of the "David Law," a Glasgow ship of 1,489 tons, which was burnt on the voyage to San Francisco with coals. The "David Law" left Leith in June with a cargo of 2,300 tons of coal and about 300 tons of pig iron. All went well until the beginning of August, when the vessel was within 300 miles of the Falkland Islands. It then came on to blow very strongly from the north-west, and the "David Law" being very heavily rigged, began to roll. This must have had the effect of stirring up the cargo, for on Sunday the 29th, when the ship hove to in consequence of the fog, a strong gaseous smell was

detected, and soon after a thin wreath of smoke was seen issuing from the fore ventilator. Immediately the captain gave orders to close batten down everything, and in a short time the ventilators and hatches had been plugged up. The escape, however, continued, driving the crew from the fore-castle into the deck-house. When daylight broke the captain ordered all sail to be set, and the ship squared away for the Islands. While the crew were employed in making sail the fore main and quarter hatches blew up with tremendous force, but all escaped injury. The captain then directed the four boats to be got ready for lowering, and every preparation was made for abandoning the vessel, the boats being stored with a fortnight's provisions. At noon the Islands were sighted. Meanwhile the thin gaseous atmosphere had developed into volumes of thick black smoke, which prevented the crew leaving aft. The ship slipped past the Eastern Island, and the captain, seeing no signs of human habitation, at first thought of taking her around to Port Stanley. During the night she lay to, but the voyage was resumed at daybreak. Soon, however, there was another explosion, and this was succeeded by flames. It was then decided to run the ship broadside on to Elephant Keys. This feat was successfully accomplished, and the crew were speedily landed. They had not been ashore half an hour when there was another tremendous explosion, and fire broke through the middle ventilators. By the evening the foremast fell. The fire burnt fiercely through the night, illuminating the Islands. During the night the main and mizen masts fell, demolishing the after part of the vessel. When daylight came naught but a few floating spars marked the scene of the wreck and conflagration. The next day, two shepherds, the sole occupants of Speedwell, distant three miles, signalled them by lighting a fire, and the crew accordingly pulled off there. They remained, living in their boats, for nearly a fortnight, when the Governor of Port Stanley despatched a schooner to bring them thither. Within a few hours of their arrival the "Raleigh" touched, and took them on board.

3. A letter appeared in the *Times* from Colonel (Chinese) Gordon, stating that the result of his study of the Irish question on the spot showed him that the "gulf of antipathy" between landlords and tenants is not to be bridged; that the condition of the people in the West of Ireland is worse than that of the Chinese, Indians, or Anatolians; and that the true policy of the Government would be to buy up eleven counties—viz. Westmeath, Cork, Clare, Kerry, Limerick, Leitrim, Sligo, Mayo, Cavan, Longford, and Donegal—at the cost of 80,000,000*l.*, the territory to be a Crown estate managed by a Commission, and that 100,000*l.* per annum should be provided to assist emigration.

— The Bishop of Valence appeared before the law courts on the charge of insulting the Under-Secretary of the Minister of Public Worship in a letter marked "confidential." The purport of the letter was an attack on the Government policy. The Bishop was acquitted.

— The following appeared in the *Wisbech Advertiser*:—The gentlemen who early in September last indulged in glowing articles upon the harvest of 1880 would probably be surprised to hear that harvest operations (leading and stacking) were in full swing last week in several parts of Lincolnshire and adjoining counties, and upon farms occupied by experienced and practical agriculturists. In Spalding North Fen, in Borough Fen, and several other places, wheat, oats, and barley were got into stack on Friday and

Saturday in last week, and in two or three instances the operation was not completed until this week. The writers of these articles doubtless formed their opinion from what they saw in their daily ride to town from the south of London, or from a trip down to Brighton or Dover. There the corn was of fine quality and yielded well; but in the great corn-growing counties of Lincolnshire and Yorkshire we can only repeat what we said in August, that the harvest of 1880 was one of the worst ever remembered. The tremendous rains which fell after that time increased the calamity, and the consequences have been and will be most disastrous. The remarkably fine weather of the present week has enabled farmers to prosecute wheat-sowing with vigour."

4. All the Powers having agreed to the proposal of Her Majesty's Government that the fleets assembled at Cattaro should separate after mutually intercommunicating their respective destinations, Admiral Seymour received orders to give the signal to part company.

— Judgment delivered by the Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench in Ireland (Sir G. A. May) on the application for a postponement of the Land Leaguers' trial. In refusing the application the Chief Justice used expressions which, being interpreted as an assumption of the guilt of the accused, drew down upon him a storm of obloquy and abuse.

— The sculling match between Trickett and Ross rowed again from Putney, in consequence of the foul allowed in the previous race. In the first few strokes Ross got to the front, and he gradually increased his lead, though only sculling twenty-nine strokes a minute against Trickett's thirty-four, until at Craven Cottage he was three and a half lengths ahead. At various times the Australian seemed to be gaining on his opponent, but Ross passed under Hammersmith Bridge two and a half lengths in front in 9 min. 20 secs. From the first Trickett never had a chance, and Ross finally passed the winning post at Mortlake in 23 min. 43 secs., an easy winner by about 10 seconds.

5. At a ball at Schwarzenburg, Saxony, a young man entered, having what appeared to be a cigar in his mouth. He went to the chandelier as if to light it, and a terrible explosion ensued. The lights were extinguished, the walls partly gave way, dancers of both sexes were covered with blood, and the young man was blown to pieces. He had resolved on committing suicide, and had made use of a dynamite cartridge for that purpose.

6. At the Farmers' Club Mr. Clare S. Read referred at length to the American competition in agriculture. He denied that American wheat could be laid down in the Mersey under 40s. a quarter, and believed that even at that price the supply would soon cease, so that if English farmers could tide over the next twenty years they would have little to fear.

— Diplomatic relations between France and Mexico, which had been suspended since 1867, or, without counting the unhappy Maximilian episode, since 1862, formally resumed by the presentation of the Mexican Minister to President Grévy.

— The freedom of the city of Waterford conferred on Mr. Parnell, M.P., who in acknowledging the honour urged upon the Irish people the need of taking a more active part in their own self-government; of taking their place on all local boards, and substituting for the system of irresponsible grand juries, who exercised great power in the counties, bodies of men who should represent the whole body of ratepayers. With this as a commence-

ment, and the independence of the Irish Parliamentary party in the House of Commons maintained, Mr. Parnell prophesied that in five or six years the right of self-government would be fully restored to the Irish people.

7. The funeral of Naonobon Sameshima, Japanese Minister to France, celebrated at the Montparnasse Cemetery. It was attended by the Diplomatic Corps and representatives of the President and other State functionaries. The Japanese Minister to England also was present, and uttered the following words:—"Sameshima! Ever since you began your uses in this world, righteousness found you a most faithful servant. You worked hard and well thirty-seven years, worthily spent. No more, O precious soul! No more, O noble labourer! No more, O bright star! Still you live; still you work; still you shine in the bosom of your friend. You know me well."

— At the Woolwich Arsenal a 24-pounder rocket exploded while the charge was under pressure, seriously injuring three men who were in charge. The thickness of the rocket sheds, and their isolation from one another, prevented the effects of the explosion from being felt outside.

— In accordance with a very ancient civic custom, presents of black livery cloth of the finest material, each $4\frac{1}{2}$ yards long, were forwarded on the part of the Corporation of London to the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Chief Justice, the Master of the Rolls, the Lord Chamberlain, the Vice-Chamberlain, the Lord Steward, the Treasurer and Comptroller of the Household, the Home Secretary, the Foreign Secretary, the Attorney-General, the Solicitor-General, the Recorder, the Town Clerk, and the Common Serjeant. The origin of the custom is thus explained:—In the early periods of our history the retainers of great lords wearing their liveries were so numerous as to be dangerous both to the King and the laws. The disorders arising from them required all the vigour of the King and the Legislature to restrain, and many statutes extending from 1377 to 1504 were passed for that purpose. An exception was introduced in the prohibition in favour of guilds and fraternities and men of the mysteries of cities and boroughs. This probably gave rise to the "liverymen" of the various companies, and is supposed to be the origin of this gift of "livery cloth," as it is called.

8. The India office having invited tenders for a loan at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in gold in London, and repayable in fifty years, received tenders to the extent of $14\frac{1}{2}$ millions. The minimum price stipulated was 98, but the whole was allotted above 103½—a single firm taking a million and a half at 104.

— James Mulholland, a bailiff, shot dead near Cookstown, co. Tyrone, on his way to serve a notice of ejectment on a farmer.

9. The Dominion Parliament at Ottawa opened by the Marquess of Lorne, who congratulated the representatives on the state of the country, and announced that contracts had been entered into for the speedy construction and permanent working of the Pacific Railroad.

10. At the Naval Steam Coal Colliery in the Rhondda Valley, South Wales, while nearly a hundred men were working in the Penygraig Pit, a tremendous explosion was heard, which startled the country for miles around, and on a crowd gathering at the pit-head it was found that the cage shaft was blocked. Volunteers descended, and having cleared away a

vast quantity of wreckage, came on four men, comparatively unhurt, the sole survivors of those who were in the mine at the time of the explosion.

— The question of the succession to the throne of Roumania regulated by choosing the sons of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern as heirs of Prince Charles in default of direct issue.

— The Viceroy of India (Marquess of Ripon) taken ill with fever at Allahabad, and grave fears as to the issue lasted for some days. At the end of a week, however, he was pronounced out of danger.

11. Some correspondence published between Captain Boycott and Mr. Gladstone. The former writes to the Prime Minister, giving a narrative of the events which forced him to leave Ireland, and asks for compensation from the Government :—"I have been prevented from pursuing my business peaceably ; where my property has not been stolen, it has been maliciously wasted, and my life has been in hourly peril for many months. At length, in defiance of all law and order, I have been driven from my house, and, having done no evil, find myself a ruined man, because the law, as administered, has not protected me." In reply, Mr. Gladstone's secretary wrote :—"Mr. Gladstone has received your letter of the 8th inst., and, in reply, desires me to say that he is not sure in what way he is to understand your request for assistance from her Majesty's Government. It has been very largely afforded you in the use of the public force. Beyond this, it is the duty of the Government to use its best exertions in the enforcement of the existing law, which they are endeavouring to effect through the Courts, and by asking, when necessary, the assistance of the Legislature to amend or enlarge the law—a matter of much importance, on which you can, of course, only receive information together with the public generally."

— A two days' sale of the Middle Park stud concluded. The 40 brood mares realised 10,865 guineas ; 28 foals, 4,815 guineas ; 8 yearlings, 560 guineas ; and 2 stallions, 3,510 guineas. Of the last named, Dutch Skates was purchased by Lord Rosebery for 3,200 guineas ; the highest prices for the mares was Czarina (1871), a daughter of King Tom, 1,500 guineas, and Hilda (1866), daughter of Prime Minister, 1,400.

12. A revolution reported from the Republic of Andorra. In consequence of the Syndics, or executive council of the Republic, having refused to entertain the proposal of a foreign company to establish a casino and gaming table, and to connect the Republic by a railway to the rest of the world, the people rose and forced their magistrates to resign. Order was subsequently established by the mediation of the French agent.

13. Anthony Peter, ninth Patriarch of Cilicia, commonly called Monsignor Hassoun, created a Cardinal by Pope Leo XIII.

— The Court of Queen's Bench, composed of Lord Justice Coleridge, Mr. Justice Field, and Mr. Justice Manisty, gave judgment in the case of Rev. T. P. Dale. Application had been made for a writ of *Habeas Corpus* to release him from custody and to set aside the proceedings against him for contumacy under the Public Worship Act. After arguments lasting over five days the Court unanimously refused the application and upheld Lord Penzance's powers and jurisdiction.

14. Thirty head of cattle and thirty sheep, the property of Mr. Bence Jones, a large landowner and farmer in the South of Ireland, arrived in Cork for shipment to Bristol by the Cork Steam Packet Company's steamer "*Xema*."

In the usual course of business, they were placed in the Company's cattle-yard adjoining the wharf. Some time after it was discovered by the other shippers of cattle that Mr. Bence Jones's cattle were about to be shipped on board the "Xema," whereupon they waited in a body upon the directors of the Company, and said if the cattle were taken they should withdraw, and would not continue to ship by the Company. In face of this the directors saw no course for them but to refuse Mr. Jones's cattle, which they accordingly did. The beasts were driven out of the yard and strayed about the quay, no one being found willing to take charge of them. The police were called in and collected the cattle. They were driven into the premises of the Great Southern and Western Railway Company, and taken to Dublin. But, though they eventually reached Liverpool in safety, the power of the Land League made itself felt even in that city, and great difficulty was experienced in selling the animals.

— The Postmaster-General (Mr. Fawcett) addressed his constituents at Hackney, giving an account of the progress of the Post-Office penny savings bank scheme inaugurated a month previously, and by means of which 83,500 forms were sold, involving the opening of more than 58,000 accounts. He also held out hopes that a reduction of telegraph rates was imminent, and that the Post-Office would be able to arrange with the railway companies for a parcel post.

— At the Sheffield Town-hall, Mary Annie Wilmot, a nurse from the Sheffield Nurses' Home, was committed for trial on a charge of administering, or causing to be administered, a quantity of poison to Mrs. Eliza Booth, a Sheffield surgeon's wife, with intent to kill her.

15. Mr. Healy, M.P., Mr. Parnell's private secretary, and Mr. Walsh tried at the Cork Assizes on the charge of attempting to intimidate a farmer near Bantry, and to force him to give up possession of a holding from which a former tenant had been evicted. After an hour's deliberation both prisoners were acquitted.

16. Mr. P. Callan, M.P., sentenced at the Central Criminal Court to a fine of 80*l.* and costs for a libel on Mr. A. M. Sullivan, M.P.

— A Republican Government proclaimed in the Transvaal by 5,000 Boers, who take possession of Heidelberg and at once commence military operations against the representatives of the Colonial Government.

— The following correspondence sent to the *Times* for publication by an extensive landed proprietor in Ireland who formerly represented an Irish county in Parliament :—

"Dublin Castle : Dec. 10.

"Sir,—The Lord Lieutenant having been pleased to appoint you to be High Sheriff of the county of — for the ensuing year, I am directed by his Excellency to request you will make the necessary arrangements for undertaking the duties of that office.

"An early acknowledgment of this communication is requested.

"I have the honour to be, Sir, your most obedient servant,

"T. H. BURKE.

"To —."

"— : Dec. 15, 1880."

"Sir,—I beg to acknowledge the letter of the 10th December, informing me that the Lord Lieutenant had been pleased to appoint me to be High Sheriff of the county of — for the ensuing year.

I

"I must most respectfully decline the appointment.

"1. Because, owing to the state of the country, I am in receipt of so diminished a rental that I cannot afford the expenses of the office.

"2. Her Majesty's Government having allowed the country to verge into a state of anarchy and rebellion, the responsibilities and dangers of the office are more than I am willing to incur.

"I have the honour to be, Sir, your obedient servant,

" —.

"T. H. Burke: The Castle, Dublin."

— At the Court of Common Council it was unanimously resolved, on the motion of Mr. J. T. Bedford, "That the Thames Conservancy Board be requested to inform this Court whether they have under their consideration the recent attempts of the riparian owners of the banks of the Thames to prevent angling in that river, a right enjoyed by the public for very many years; and what action, if any, they intend to take in the matter."

17. A meeting of the Bread Reform League held at the Mansion House, to promote the use of flour made from the whole wheat flour after the bran, or outer husk, has been removed by a process known as Dr. Morfit's. It was urged that by this means the nutritive qualities of bread would be marvellously increased, whilst the irritating properties of the husk as employed in ordinary brown bread are avoided.

— Mr. Gladstone declined to accede to Captain Boycott's claim for pecuniary compensation on account of his having to leave his farm, Mr. Gladstone holding that the large display of "public force" required for Captain Boycott's protection having been furnished, the State could not be expected to entertain any further claims.

— The Evesham election inquiry closed, and resulted in the unseating of Mr. Lehmann (Liberal) and the award of the seat on scrutiny to Mr. Dixon-Hartland (Conservative).

— Under the auspices of the Christian Socialists—a reforming sect founded and championed by the Rev. Herr Stoecker, the Emperor's chaplain—a numerously attended anti-Semitic meeting was held in Berlin in a large public hall, which soon became a scene of the most disgraceful uproar and violence. Jew and German, not contenting themselves with the weapons of offence and defence offered by their tongues, fell upon each other with their fists, and did revengeful execution with their heavily shod feet. Sufficient quiet was at last restored to pass a resolution:—"That the citizens of Berlin, assembled on December 17, are convinced that if the Liberal parties identify themselves further with Judaism the majority of the electors will be forced into the Conservative camp. We protest against the shameless coquetry carried on with Judaism, and believe that the perilous irresolution of our time is only to be obviated by the foundation of a liberal-minded party free from Jews."

18. Four hundred and sixteen students belonging to the University of Moscow arrested, and marched, under a strong guard, through the town to the convict prison. They were charged with having illegally assembled in the enclosure of the University, and demanded to see the Rector in relation to the expulsion of four of their number, a few days previously, for making speeches in the lecture-room. Most of them were subsequently released.

— Rev. T. P. Dale released on bail from Holloway Prison on the understanding that, pending the hearing of his case in the Court of Appeal, he

would do nothing in disobedience of the monition. Mr. Enraght preferred to remain in Warwick Gaol, refusing his liberty on the terms offered.

20. The Exchequer Division of the Supreme Court, after listening to the arguments in a protracted trial, decided that the State monopoly of telegraphs covered telephones. Mr. Justice Stephen ruled, upon scientific grounds, that the telephone was not an elongated speaking-trumpet, but an instrument for repeating at one end, by means of electricity transmitted through a wire, the sounds uttered at the other end.

— The old-established English banking firm of Messrs. Hanson and Co. at Constantinople suspended payment and called a meeting of their creditors.

— Two of the Midland Railway Company's trains came into collision close to the Leeds station, the accident resulting in one death and injuries to between forty and fifty persons.

— Herr Fürst, proprietor of the Sword Hotel at Zurich, found guilty, together with his son-in-law, of burning down the hotel on the Otto Kulm, of which he was formerly the owner. He has been condemned to six years', and the son-in-law to five years', penal servitude. The hotel was insured for 300,000 francs. The affair created great excitement in Zurich. A crowd of 5,000 persons assembled before the Court-house to learn the issue of the trial, and the police had great difficulty in preventing the crowd from lynching Fürst, who is a German, and his confederate.

21. Lord Penzance, sitting at the House of Lords as Dean of Arches, gave judgment in the case of *Combe v. the Rev. John Bagot de la Bere*, Vicar of Prestbury. The defendant had disobeyed an order of the Court suspending him for six months for illegal ritualist practices; and Lord Penzance now, after hearing counsel, said that it was a clear case of contempt and contumacy, and ordered a sentence of deprivation to be drawn up by January 8.

— An assembly of irreconcilable Guelphs, which met at Hanover to celebrate the birth of a son and heir to the Duke of Cumberland, sent a message of congratulation to the Duke of Brunswick, who lost no time in wiring back his appreciation of the compliment. The act could not but cause considerable surprise in high quarters at Berlin. A controversy having ensued between several journals as to the true wording of the Duke's return message, and whether, indeed, he sent one at all, the semi-official *North German Gazette* was instructed to settle the dispute by the publication of his Grace's answer, which ran thus :—" Brunswick : Dec. 3, 1880. State telegram. To the faithful and kin-related Hanoverians assembled at the festival in honour of the newly-born Royal Prince.—I express my heartiest thanks for their communication. Signed, WILHELM, Duke of Brunswick; countersigned, FREIHERR VON GİRSEWALD, First Lieutenant and Aide-de-Camp."

— At Washington, during the debate on the Funding Bill in the House of Representatives, several of the Greenback members opposed it. Among these was Mr. Weaver, the Greenback candidate for the post of President, who got into a controversy with Mr. Sparks, Democrat of Illinois, an accusation being made that Mr. Weaver in the recent campaign secretly aided the Republicans. Both gentlemen became very angry, causing a great sensation in the House. Mr. Weaver called Mr. Sparks "a liar," to which the latter retorted, "You are a scoundrel and a villain." They then moved towards each other for a fight, taking off their coats while advancing, when some

members interposing, prevented a collision. Intense uproar prevailed on the floor of the House, several of the members putting themselves into positions for a fight. When the Speaker sent the Serjeant-at-Arms to restore order, their friends removed the combatants, the House adjourning soon afterwards. On the following day several members strongly denounced the disgraceful scene. Mr. Fernando Wood called it the most disgraceful exhibition ever seen there. Mr. M'Lane, of Maryland, proposed a resolution requiring Messrs. Weaver and Sparks to apologise. They did not appear to apologise, and Mr. Bowman, of Massachusetts, said that the House should do more than demand an apology—it should take action. That would be a warning for the future. He therefore proposed that both members should be expelled. Mr. Crown, of Indiana, moved as a substitute that a special committee be appointed to report without delay what proceedings the House should take. The House, after a two hours' discussion, which calmed the feelings of the members, adopted a motion permitting Mr. Weaver and Mr. Sparks to make statements. Both gentlemen then apologised to the House for their conduct. The House then, by 104 to 44, laid the whole subject on the table, thus ending the matter.

22. The Sultan invested with the Grand Cordon of the Legion of Honour.

— Mr. Arthur W. Peel, M.P., resigned the office of Under-Secretary of State for the Home Department in consequence of medical advice that, in the present state of his health, he could not safely continue to incur the combined fatigues of official and Parliamentary duties.

23. M. Maxime du Camp, a voluminous writer on social topics, received at the French Academy by M. Caro. He pronounced the eulogy on his predecessor M. Saint-René Taillandier.

— A New Caledonia paper, quoted by the *République Française*, stated that in Mare, one of the Loyalty Islands, a party of Protestant natives were attacked last July, without provocation and while preparing their dinner, by a party of Catholic natives armed with bludgeons. The Protestants, taken by surprise and unarmed, fled in confusion. Next day, a Sunday, the Catholics challenged the Protestants to an encounter to determine which was the true faith. The Protestants, objecting to desecrate Sunday, agreed to fight on Monday, when they routed their enemies and hemmed them in on a hill. The besieged were about to capitulate and pay an indemnity, when the Catholic missionaries dissuaded them, promising them the aid of French soldiers. The victors, enraged at this interference of foreign priests, scoured the country, massacring all the Catholics they met, and not even sparing infants.

25. In a long letter addressed to Mr. Bright, dated from Madeira, and published in the *Times*, Lord Carnarvon criticised the former's speech at the Birmingham Liberal Club on November 10. Lord Carnarvon took especial exception to his tender reproofs of the breakers of law and contracts in Ireland, to his reference to the long list of crimes committed by monarchs, and to his strictures on the hostile attitude of the House of Lords to popular reforms, and expressed his astonishment that with such views Mr. Bright could remain a Minister of the Crown. Mr. Bright replied as follows:—"Rochdale: Dec. 25, 1880.—Your letter of Dec. 7, which appeared in the London papers of yesterday morning, reached me last night. You comment on my speech of Nov. 16, and find in

it terrible blemishes, which have not been discovered by its critics in this country. You condemn me for attacks on the sovereign, the aristocracy, and the landowners. I have defended the monarchy. The defence is little needed in this country, and in this reign I have warned the aristocracy of the danger I wished them to shun. As to the landowners, I have been one of the most prominent of the supporters of a policy so necessary for the country, and so wise for them that, had it been obstinately resisted, the great landowners of England and Scotland would long ago have been running for their lives, as some Irish landowners are reported to be doing now. I will not reply at length to your letter; it is enough to acknowledge the receipt of it. I am content to leave my speech and your letter to the judgment of the public. I am, yours respectfully, JOHN BRIGHT.—The Right Hon. the Earl of Carnarvon."

— At Odessa, in the evening, two rather severe shocks of earthquake occurred within a very short interval of each other. They appeared to come from the direction of the Middle Danube, and, passing through Roumania and Bessarabia, spent themselves on the shores of the Black Sea in South Russia. They were most strongly felt at the Bessarabian towns of Bielez, Kishineff, and Tiraspol, for the walls of some of the houses were cracked in consequence. At Odessa the effects were limited to buildings and furniture being more or less roughly shaken, or light articles, such as vases, bottles, and glasses, being thrown down. The weather was extremely mild and calm at the time, and the sky but very partially clouded.

26. Aleko Pasha, Governor-General of Eastern Roumelia, tendered his resignation to the Porte in consequence of a refusal by the Assembly of a proposed expenditure of 2,000*l.* to furnish his official residence. This he regarded as a vote of want of confidence. After some delay and discussion the resignation was withdrawn.

— Disastrous floods reported from all parts of Cyprus. At Limasol alone eight lives were lost, sixty houses washed away by the rising of the river, and property estimated at 70,000*l.* destroyed.

— The Norwegian poet, Bjørnsen, given a reception by his countrymen at M'Vicker's Theatre, Chicago. Addressing those present in his native tongue, he said that the Norwegian Monarchy was too despotic over half its people to favour a Republic. He predicted that it would not be long before a change would be made, by the dethronement of the Monarchy and the establishment of a Republic.

27. Mr. Parnell elected leader of the Irish Parliamentary party in the House of Commons, and a resolution passed that the Home Rulers, irrespective of the party in power, should sit on the Opposition side in the House of Commons.

— Count Montgelas, Conseiller of the Austro-Hungarian Embassy at Constantinople, and formerly Secretary to the Embassy at London, summarily dismissed from the Austrian diplomatic service on the ground of having copied and communicated confidential documents passing through his hands.

— According to an official list appended to the report of the "Atalanta" Committee, seventy-seven of her Majesty's ships (exclusive of yard craft) had been lost since 1840. Of these the loss or wreck of sixty-eight is accounted for. The following nine are "known to have been capsized," or have never been heard of :—

Name of ship	Tons	Class	When Lost	Constructor
Victor	382	S. Sloop	1842-3	Sir W. Rule, Bombay
Louisa	75	S. Cutter	1841	Purchased at Canton
Nerbudda	420	Brig Sloop	1856	Sir W. Symonds
Sappho	428	Brig Sloop	1859	Sir W. Symonds
Heron	482	Brig Sloop	1859	Sir W. Symonds
Camilla	549	Brig Sloop	1861	Sir W. Symonds
Captain	4,272	S. A. P. Ship	1870	{ Captain Coles and Messrs. Laird
Eurydice	921	S., 6th Rate	1878	Admiral Elliot
Atalanta	923	S., 6th Rate	1880	Sir W. Symonds

— Signor Cairoli notified to the Syndic of Rome that the Government would not give its consent to the proposed tramway along the Appian Way.

28. The trial of the "Land Leaguers"—Mr. Parnell and his thirteen colleagues—commenced at Dublin, in the Court of Queen's Bench, before Mr. Justice Fitzgerald and Mr. Justice Barry. When the case was called on, Chief Justice May announced his intention of not hearing the case, as his remarks on the application for a postponement had been much misrepresented.

29. Snowstorms and floods in many parts of England did great damage. At Sheffield the low-lying streets in the vicinity of the Don were several feet under water. At Attercliffe the inhabitants took refuge in the upper storeys of their houses. Long stretches of the Darlington and Tees railway were blocked by snow-drifts, and these when thawed left large expanses of water. In Monmouthshire some of the roads were five feet under water, and in the chancel of Dexton Church the water stood two feet high. In the north of Scotland the weather was intensely cold—Kirkwall Harbour was frozen over, an almost unknown event.

— Lord John Manners, in sending a subscription to the Grand Orange Lodge of Ireland, writes "that, though not an Orangeman, and with but little sympathy with some of their views, yet in the present paralysis of Government they appear to be the only organised body able and willing to strike a blow in defence of order and liberty in Ireland."

— Mrs. Cross ("George Eliot") buried at Highgate Cemetery according to the Unitarian rites; her funeral attended by the principal members of the literary profession.

— The French ironclad "Richelieu" caught fire in Toulon Harbour, and had to be scuttled in order to protect the other vessels.

30. Floods of a most serious character announced in the southern provinces of Holland. The dykes between Nieuwkuyk and Vlymen were broken down for a distance of fifty metres, and the waters passing through the breach flooded eighteen villages in the country lying between Altena and Heusden. From the banks of the Meuse in Belgium, especially at Seraing and Liège, similar floods occurred, occasioning much damage.

— Intensely cold weather reported throughout the United States. In the North-Western States the cold began on the 27th, the thermometer falling on Tuesday to 27° below zero at St. Paul, Minnesota, and to 42° below at Fort Garry, Manitoba. Thence the cold spread east and south. On the 28th the thermometer everywhere south was below the freezing point, ex-

cepting in the southern part of Florida. Snow fell in twenty States, extending south to Galveston and New Orleans. The mercury fell to 20° above zero at New Orleans, and as low as 9° above zero at Shreveport, Louisiana, where the unusual cold caused business to be almost suspended. Cotton-picking in the Southern States was suspended. The mercury fell below zero on the 29th at Sherman, Texas. On the 30th the mercury was below zero throughout the entire country east of the Rocky Mountains. North of the Missouri, Ohio, and Potomac rivers snow covered the entire country. Such intense cold in the Southern States has rarely been known before.

31. Mr. Leonard H. Courtney, M.P., appointed to be Parliamentary Under-Secretary of the Home Office, in the room of Mr. Arthur W. Peel, resigned on account of ill-health.

— The Governors of St. Thomas's Hospital, acting under the authority of the Charity Commissioners, announced their intention to receive into St. Thomas's Home persons of the upper and middle classes who were able and willing to pay for the benefits of medical attendance and nursing therein—benefits which have hitherto been confined to the poor alone. In order to carry this into effect the Governors appropriated two wards in the Hospital distinct from the other or ordinary wards, and situate in one of the end blocks. These two wards have been fitted up and furnished expressly for the purpose of accommodating patients of the classes above mentioned. Each patient will have a separate sleeping compartment, curtained off with thick impervious linen curtains from the others, and each compartment is lighted by a large window, and is appropriately and comfortably furnished. The minimum charge for each patient will be eight shillings a day, to cover all expenses of treatment, nursing, and maintenance; but patients may, if they desire it, be attended by their own doctor.

— The following is a "Return (compiled from returns made to the Inspector-General of the Royal Irish Constabulary) of Cases of Eviction which have come to the knowledge of the constabulary in each quarter of the year ended December 31, 1880, showing the number of families evicted in each county in Ireland during each quarter, the number readmitted as tenants, and the number readmitted as caretakers." The total number of evictions was 2,110 families, and 10,657 persons. Of these there were evicted in the quarter ended March 31, 554 families and 2,748 persons; in the quarter ended June 30, 687 families and 3,508 persons; in the quarter ended September 30, 671 families and 3,447 persons; and in that ended December 31, 198 families and 954 persons. There were readmitted during the year as tenants, 217 families and 1,021 persons; and as caretakers 947 families and 4,996 persons.

OBITUARY

OF

EMINENT PERSONS DECEASED IN 1880.

JANUARY.

Major Anthony Cunningham, one of the few survivors of Sale's "illustrious garrison" of Jellalabad, died at Hounslow on January 2. Major Cunningham served in the 13th (Prince Albert's) Light Infantry with the army of the Indus, 1839-42, and was present at the storming of Ghuzni, the storming of the Khurd Cabul Pass, the affair of Tazin, the forcing of the Jagdalak Pass, the reduction of Fort Mamov Khail, and the defence of Jellalabad (during one of the sorties from which he was wounded), and the general action and defeat before Jellalabad, on April 7, 1842, of Sirdar Mahomed Akhbar Khan Barukzye, the son of Dost Mahomed; the storming the heights of Jagdalak, September 8; general action of Tazin, September 13; and the recapture of Cabul September 15. Major Cunningham went to Suffuk Kale, under Sir R. Sale, for the purpose of bringing in Lady Sale and the other Cabul captives. He also served throughout the Crimean war in 1854-5, and in the China war of 1857-8.

Ernst Kossak died at Berlin on January 3. One of the chief feuilletonists of Germany. Many persons regarded his humorous sketches as almost equal to those of Jean Paul Richter, whom he seemed to have regarded as his model. He was unsurpassed in his delineations of the characteristics of Berlin life. He had had a professional education as a pianist, and was an excellent although fragmentary musical critic. His principal collected works are "Berlin and the Berliners," "Berlin Silhouettes," "Berlin Pen and Ink

Sketches," "Sketches from the Travelling Book of a Literary Craftsman," "Parisian Stereoscopic Slides."

Lord George Augustus Beauclerk died on January 3, in London, in the 62nd year of his age. His lordship was an uncle of the present Duke of St. Albans, being the youngest son of William, the eighth duke, by his marriage with Maria Janetta, only daughter and heiress of the late Mr. John Nelthorpe, of Little Grimsby Hall, Lincolnshire. He was born in December, 1818, and entered the Army in 1838 as cornet in the 10th Hussars, of which he became captain in 1844. He served with the above regiment in the Crimea, including the battle of Tchernaya and the siege and fall of Sebastopol. He retired from the 6th Dragoon Guards with the rank of major in 1857. His lordship was a brother of Lady Cholmeley, of the late Countess of Essex, of the late Lord Amelius Wentworth Beauclerk, and also of the late Duke of St. Albans.

Mr. Edward William Cooke, R.A., died on January 4, after a brief illness, at the age of 68, at his residence, Glen Andre, a short distance from Tunbridge Wells. Mr. Cooke, who was the son of that eminent engraver the late Mr. George Cooke, and of German descent, was born in London in 1811, and early developed a talent for art. This was sedulously encouraged by his father, who placed him under the tuition of the elder Pugin. With him he studied perspective and architecture, and then devoted himself to book illustrations, his principal

efforts being directed to the illustration of botanical works, including among others Loudon's "Encyclopædia" and Loddige's "Botanical Cabinet." Continuing his career as an illustrator and engraver, he published—and this was his first publication—"Shipping and Craft," for which he drew and etched fifty plates, and then drew and engraved twelve large plates, of Old and New London Bridges, published in one volume, after which he turned his attention to painting in oil and water colours. His first works were coast and Dutch subjects, large rough sea and marine views, in which he excelled. Holland was to him at this time a second Fatherland. He visited the country no fewer than sixteen times, and seemed never to tire of depicting its pleasant pastures, its calm dykes, or its rougher seas. Having once taken to the brush, he became an exceedingly fertile painter, and between 1845 and 1854 executed nearly 100 pictures of Italian subjects. After visiting Scandinavia he commenced a series of visits to Venice, and painted a large number of its principal buildings, with the fishing craft of the city of the Doges and its lagoons. These were succeeded by works on a large scale of Arctic scenes, and of scenes in Spain and Morocco, the picturesqueness of the costumes and the buildings in the two countries lending themselves harmoniously to his style. One large work of this class appeared in the Royal Academy Exhibition for 1864, and was greatly admired. The deceased artist was elected an Associate of the Royal Academy in 1851, and was admitted to the full honours of the Academy in 1864, in which year he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society. He was also a Fellow of the Linnean, the Zoological, the Geographical, and the Geological Societies, of the Alpine Club, and of the Architectural Museum.

The Comte de Montalivet, the last surviving Minister of Louis Philippe, died late on January 4, at Lagrange. He was born in 1801, his father being a Minister under the Empire, and raised to the peerage by Louis XVIII. On the death both of his father and elder brother, in 1822, he succeeded to the title, and he took the side of Moderate Liberalism, as also he did in several pamphlets. He was not personally engaged in the revolution of 1830, but promptly accepted the Orleans dynasty, and in the following year, while yet under the age entitling him to vote in

the House of Peers, he became Minister of the Interior. In 1831 he exchanged the Home for the Education Office, but resumed the latter on M. Casimir Périer's death in the following year, when sedition obliged him to declare Paris and several Departments in a state of siege. After an interval of opposition to M. Guizot, he returned to office in 1837, figuring in Louis Philippe's last Liberal Cabinet, but his official career ended in 1840, for he refused the portfolio of Education under M. Guizot, and in 1847 repeatedly urged the King to part with his Minister and concede an extension of the suffrage, then monopolised by 200,000 persons. Faithful after 1848 to the deposed dynasty, he pleaded for its rights of private property, and in 1851 and 1862 issued pamphlets defending it against pecuniary and political reproaches. In 1874 he broke a long silence by a letter complimenting M. Casimir Périer, the younger, on his adhesion to the Republic, which he described as the only feasible Liberal Government. This letter made no little sensation among the Orleanists. During the crisis of 1877 he wrote a series of letters against the De Broglie Cabinet and a sharp rebuke to M. de Fourtou, who had publicly cited him as an authority in favour of the official candidate system. Last year, in a pamphlet entitled "Un Heureux Coin de Terre," he gave a striking account of the improvement he had witnessed in the material and moral well-being of his peasant neighbours since his first settlement at Sancerre. Last February the Republican Senators, who while in a minority had unsuccessfully proposed him, elected him to the first vacant life membership, but without hoping he could take his seat in the Senate, chronic gout having for twenty years confined him to his house. He leaves three married daughters.

Miss Sarah Smith Stafford, of Trenton, New Jersey, died on January 6. An ancestor of the deceased lady was one of the most distinguished American naval officers who fought against this country in 1812, and personally captured almost the first flag taken from an English vessel during that war. Singularly enough, the officer who performed this feat was himself nearly connected with this country, his family being an offshoot from Lord Stafford's, and also connected with that of the present Sir Stafford Northcote.

The Right Hon. the Earl of Nelson,

one of her Majesty's Lords in Waiting, died on January 9, in the 34th year of his age. Robert Jocelyn, Earl of Roden, Viscount Jocelyn, and Baron Newport, of Newport, county Tipperary, in the peerage of Ireland, and Baron Clanbrassill, of Hyde Hall, Herts, and of Dundalk, county Louth, in that of the United Kingdom, and a baronet, was the elder and only surviving son of Robert, Viscount Jocelyn, who died in 1854. His mother was the Lady Frances Elizabeth Cowper, second daughter of Peter Leopold, fifth Earl Cowper, and step-daughter of Lord Palmerston. He was born in Stanhope Street, Mayfair, on November 22, 1846. He was educated at Eaton, and at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1868; and he succeeded as fourth earl on the death of his grandfather, in March 1870. His lordship entered the army as a cornet in the 1st Life Guards in 1868; he became a lieutenant in 1869, and retired in 1871. He was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant for the county of Down, and till lately held a captain's commission in the Herts Yeomanry Cavalry. His lordship was appointed a Lord in Waiting to the Queen in February 1874.

Dr. William Budd died at Clevedon on January 9. Dr. Budd was formerly an eminent physician at Clifton, and was born in 1811 at North Tawton, in Devonshire, being the fifth son of his father, a medical man in extensive practice in that district. Having pursued the prescribed term of medical study in Paris, London, and Edinburgh, he took the degree of Doctor of Medicine in the last-named University in 1838, obtaining on the occasion a gold medal for his "Essay on Rheumatic Fever." About five or six years afterwards he settled in Bristol, and in 1844 was appointed physician to the Bristol Infirmary, and soon afterwards lecturer on medicine at the Bristol Medical School, which offices his extensive and continually increasing private practice compelled him to relinquish at the expiration of fourteen years. As early as 1839, while assisting his father during a severe epidemic of typhoid fever at North Tawton, he became convinced, from evidence he then carefully collected, that typhoid fever is communicated by infection from one person to another, and that the contagious poison, as in scarlet fever, smallpox, and some other diseases, is bred in the body of the person suffering from the disease, and nowhere else. He was early led

to the inference that water contaminated by the specific poisons of typhoid fever and cholera was the chief agent in the dissemination of those diseases. In one of his later papers he expressed an opinion that milk diluted with water, as it often is for the supply of towns, might thus become the channel of infection—an opinion subsequently fully confirmed. Continued study of epidemics of typhoid fever in the neighbourhood of Bristol, some of which he clearly traced to contaminated water, led him to the conviction that by proper sanitary measures, rigidly enforced, the ravages of typhoid fever in this country might be vastly diminished, if not, after a time, almost entirely arrested. The principal measures on which he insisted for this purpose were good drainage; a supply of water not exposed to contamination, in our towns and villages; and especially the disinfection of all contagious matters immediately on their issue from the body of the person suffering from the disease. His investigations were not confined solely to the diseases of man. He was of opinion that the spread of disease might be arrested by the slaughter of diseased animals, and by the proper use of disinfectants in contaminated farmyards. He also published suggestive papers on the prevention of cattle plague and smallpox in sheep, when these diseases first caused alarm in this country. In 1870 he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society. Early in 1873, amid incessant professional avocations, he undertook to publish a book embracing the observations he had published from time to time on the nature of typhoid fever, its mode of spreading, and prevention. The book had just passed through the press when his long-continued labours broke down his health, and, to the sorrow of the many friends whom his kindness of heart and geniality had endeared to him, he was compelled to relinquish the practice of his profession. His illness was followed by paralysis, and his subsequent life was spent with his family in retirement.

Dr. Schneider, President of the Swiss Diet in 1847, died January 14, at Berne. He was born at Meyenrid, a small village in Seeland, in 1804. The circumstances of his family were humble, and at an early age he was sent by his parents in Neuchâtel to learn the French language and the business of a baker, for which calling he was destined; but by the kindness of a distant

kinsman, who was struck by the lad's sharpness and his ardent desire to get on, he was enabled, when 17 years old, to enter the University of Berne as a student of medicine. After four years of assiduous work he obtained his diploma, and afterwards continued his studies at the Schools of Medicine at Paris and Berlin. For ten years, from 1828 to 1838, he practised his profession at Nidau, where he took also a leading part in public affairs, and became a warm advocate for the great engineering operation known as the correction of the waters of the Jura. In 1834 he was elected to the Great Council of Berne, and in 1838 his fellow-citizens sent him as their representative to the Diet of the Confederate Cantons, of which body he was chosen President, and acted in that capacity during the stormy period which terminated in the Sonderbund war. In 1848 Dr. Schneider was elected to the National Council, of which he remained a member until 1864. After 1850 he ceased to take a prominent part in politics, devoting himself nearly altogether to his professional duties, in which he was highly successful, and in his private as well as in public life he won the esteem and respect of his friends and fellow-citizens.

Antoine Agénor Alfred Duc de Gramont, Prince de Bidache, previously known as the Duc de Guiche, was born in Paris in 1819, and entered the *École Polytechnique*. In 1840, he began his career as a diplomatist. He was ambassador at Cassel, Stuttgart, Rome, and Vienna, before becoming Foreign Minister to last Ministry of the Empire, in which he played an unenviable part, and by his want of tact and temper made the Franco-Prussian war inevitable. He took refuge in England after the proclamation of the Republic, for a time—and since his return to France devoted himself to financial undertakings. He married in 1848, a Scotch lady, Miss Mackinnon. He died in Paris, on January 14, aged 60.

M. Jules Favre died on January 20, at Versailles, of heart-disease and bronchitis. Since his retirement from office in August, 1871, he had been virtually shelved by the Republicans, and had with difficulty procured and retained a seat in the Senate as member for the Rhone. His agreeing to the exclusion of Bourbaki's army from the armistice which followed the capitulation of Paris was never forgiven him, and the elo-

quence which the Empire found so formidable had for some years been silent. M. Favre, whose father was a Lyons tradesman, was born there in 1809, and was a law student in Paris at the outbreak of the 1830 revolution, in which he took part, writing a letter in a newspaper in favour of a Republic. He first joined the Lyons Bar, and in 1841 fought with the National Guards of that town against the rioters. In 1835, defending some political prisoners before the House of Peers, he began by saying, "I am a Republican," and, though ill, spoke for four hours. In 1848 he became secretary to Ledru Rollin, and is credited with the authorship of the high-handed instructions to the Provincial Commissioners. He resigned the post on being elected Deputy, was for a short time Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, supported the prosecution of Louis Blanc, and voted on some other questions with the Right. He condemned the expedition to Rome and Louis Napoleon's Presidential acts, and on Ledru Rollin's flight became the virtual leader of the Mountain. The *coup d'état* confined him to the exercise of his profession till 1858, when his defence of Orsini secured his election for Paris, and he was the leader of the Republicans, who were the nucleus of the gradually increasing Parliamentary opposition to the Empire. In 1863, being also elected for Lyons, he decided for that city to secure that seat for the Republicans. His speeches on Mexico, Italy, and Germany made a great sensation; nevertheless he was defeated at Lyons in 1869 by the more Radical Raspail, and in Paris defeated Rochefort by only a small majority. The Academy two years earlier had elected him as successor to Victor Cousin, not, of course, as an author, but as one of the most polished French orators, and his reception address contained a firm avowal of theism. On the fall of the Empire he became Foreign Minister, and his diplomatic circular, offering a pecuniary indemnity, but refusing to give up an inch of soil or a stone of a fortress, is matter of history, as are also his fruitless interviews with Prince Bismarck. In concluding the armistice he was not only beguiled into excluding Bourbaki, but he forgot to notify the exclusion to the Bordeaux Government. A more pardonable, though as it turned out still more disastrous, blunder was his insisting, despite Prince Bismarck's warnings, on the Paris National Guard retaining their arms, without which the

Commune could scarcely have occurred. He was elected by six departments to the Assembly, and remained Foreign Minister till Conservative pressure obliged M. Thiers to substitute M. de Remusat. An action for defamation, which, though resulting in a condemnation, had laid bare remote domestic irregularities, hastened this retirement. A widower since 1870, M. Jules Favre married, in 1874, a Protestant governess, and was an attendant at Protestant worship. He survived his predecessor at the Foreign Office the Duc de Gramont less than a week.

Mr. Thomas Landseer, A.R.A., the eldest and last surviving of the trio of brothers, and the oldest member of the Royal Academy, died at his house at St. John's Wood on January 28, at the age of 86. He was the eldest son of John Landseer, A.R.A., and of the lady who, in Reynolds' picture "The Gleaners" (sometimes called "Macklin's Family Picture"), figures as Miss Pott. He was not elected an associate-engraver until 1868—owing to the prejudice against the engravers, and although he was one of the most successful of his profession he never attained the honours of full membership. He occupied for many years a distinguished place in the world of art as an engraver, and he especially excelled in mezzotint engravings. He executed, among many other favourite subjects, the "Horse Fair," of Rosa Bonheur, and he continued to practise his art, with but scanty signs of failing power, down to the year before his death.

Mr. Philip Cazenove, formerly of the Stock Exchange, and to the last the titular head of the firm called P. Cazenove and Co., died on January 20. He was a business man of great capacity, a philanthropist of large sympathies. He had recently completed his 81st year. His father, James Cazenove, a merchant in London, came hither from Geneva, and was ancestrally descended from one of the Huguenot refugees for conscience sake. Philip, the fourth son of this gentleman, and the youngest of his family, was educated at the Charterhouse, under Dr. Russell. He was somewhat early removed from school to enter into business; but he retained literary tastes through life. Soon after commencing business on the Stock Exchange with his brother-in-law, Mr. Menet, himself of a refugee family, he married Emma Knapp, the daughter of a once well-known banker at Winches-

ter. Aided by the powerful interest of the founder of the house of Rothschild, Philip Cazenove became a prosperous man. Universally respected for his unflinching integrity and devotion to business, his high tone exercised a vast and every year an increasing influence for good upon all with whom he was brought into contact. Many requests came to him from time to time that he would allow himself to be proposed for a seat in the House of Commons, but these he invariably declined, feeling that he had no time to spare from the works of benevolence and charity which he had undertaken. There was scarcely a church society in London, scarcely a hospital which needed help, scarcely a work of mercy of any kind, in the list of whose supporters his name was not to be read.

The Hon. and Very Rev. A. Duncombe, Dean of York, died on January 26. Dr. Duncombe graduated at Worcester College, Oxford, in 1836, and till he was made Dean of York, in 1858, had no regular clerical work, though he constantly helped friends and took an interest in all Church matters. Under his rule the cathedral was cared for in the minutest details. As Prolocutor of the Lower House of the Convocation of York, he acted with great judgment in many anxious debates. He restored the great tithes to one of the poorest churches in the city, and in supporting Middle Class Schools in the Lichfield diocese (where he had an estate), and in many other Church enterprises, he was most munificent. He was a thorough and in some senses an advanced High Churchman; but he used his great influence frequently to restrain the more extreme Ritualists. Some years ago he was offered the Scotch bishopric of Argyll and the Isles, which he declined. The Dean, who was the son of the first Earl of Faversham, was born in 1814, and married in 1841 Lady Harriet Douglas, daughter of the fifth Marquis of Queensberry.

Edward M. Barry, B.A., Professor of Architecture and Treasurer of the Academy, died at the Council table on January 27, while he was actually engaged in the discussion of business. The cause of death appears to have been apoplectic seizure, complicated by weakness of the heart, and the death itself was instantaneous, without struggle or pain. Mr. Edward Middleton Barry, the third son of the late Sir Charles Barry, was born in June, 1830,

and was, therefore, in his 50th year. Having acted as assistant to his father during the latter years of his life, he had devoted himself from an early age to the architectural career in which he achieved for himself a highly distinguished position. He was elected an Associate of the Royal Academy in 1861, and full Academician in 1869. His chief works (besides the completion of Sir Charles's work at the New Palace of Westminster and Halifax Town Hall) were the Leeds Grammar School, Covent Garden Theatre and Floral Hall, the Charing Cross and Cannon Street Hotels, Crewe Hall (re-building), the Midland Institute, Birmingham, the new Galleries of the National Gallery, the completion of the Fitzwilliam Museum and Downing College, Cambridge, the Children's Hospital in Great Ormond Street, and the new chambers of the Inner Temple. It is also well known that he was one of the two architects recommended for the New Law Courts by the Commission of Selection and the professional referees, and that he stood first in the competition for the New National Gallery, of which only a small part was carried out under his auspices. For some years past, succeeding Sir Gilbert Scott, he had occupied the Chair of Architecture at the Academy, and in succession to Mr. Sydney Smirke had discharged the office of treasurer. In the work of the Academy he took the warmest interest, and bestowed upon it a large amount of time and thought; indeed his last moments were devoted to its service, and he died, as all the workers of life would not be unwilling to die, literally "in harness."

The Earl of Bessborough died on January 28, after a long illness, at his residence, Bessborough House, near Piltown, county Kilkenny, in the 71st year of his age. He was formerly well known in sporting circles, and was an excellent landlord in the south of Ireland, and a most popular nobleman in all circles to which he belonged. The Right Hon. John George Brabazon Ponsonby, fifth Earl of Bessborough, Viscount Duncannon and Baron of Bessborough in the Peerage of Ireland, and also Baron Ponsonby of Sysonby and Baron Duncannon in that of Great Britain, was the eldest son of John William, fourth Earl—some time Chief Commissioner of the Woods and Forests, and afterwards Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland—by his marriage with Lady Maria Fane, third daughter of John, tenth

Earl of Westmoreland. He was born in London in October 1809, and was educated at the Charterhouse, in its palmy days, under Dr. Russell. He was for a short time a *précis* writer under Lord Palmerston at the Foreign Office and an Attaché at St. Petersburg, and he held a seat in the unreformed House of Commons for a few months in 1831-2, as M.P., first for Bletchingley, and afterwards for Higham Ferrers. He again entered Parliament at the general election of December, 1834, as one of the members for Derby, which borough he continued to represent down to his succession to the honours of the Peerage by his father's death in May, 1847. He held the office of Steward of Her Majesty's Household under Mr. Gladstone's Ministry in 1868-74, and that of Master of the Buckhounds under Lords Russell and Palmerston in 1848-52, and again from 1859-66. He was sworn a Privy Councillor in 1848, and had held the Lord-Lieutenancy of County Carlow since 1838. He held a seat in the House of Peers as Lord Ponsonby of Sysonby, a title created in 1749. Lord Bessborough was twice married—first, in 1835, to Lady Frances Charlotte Lambton, daughter of the first Earl of Durham (she died the same year); and, secondly, in 1849, to Lady Caroline Lennox, daughter of the late and sister of the present Duke of Richmond; but he had no family by either marriage. His titles, therefore, pass to his next brother, the Hon. Frederick George Ponsonby, who was born in the year 1815, and is an M.A. of Trinity College, Cambridge, and a Deputy-Lieutenant for King's County.

Sir William Erle, formerly Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas, died on January 28, after a few days' illness, at his residence, Bramshott, near Liphook, Hampshire, aged 87. Sir William Erle was born in the year 1793, the third son of the late Rev. Christopher Erle, of Gillingham, Dorsetshire, his mother Margaret, daughter of Mr. Thomas Bowles, of Shaftesbury, in the same county, a relative of the late eminent poet, the Rev. William Lisle Bowles. He was educated at Winchester College, from which he passed with a Fellowship to New College, Oxford, where he graduated in due course. The members of that College at that time having the privilege of taking their degree without undergoing any public examination, his name of necessity does not appear in any of the "Honour Lists." He took his de-

gree of Bachelor of Civil Law in 1818, and in the following year was called to the Bar at the Middle Temple, and joined the Western Circuit, on which he rose to distinction, though not so rapidly as Sir Alexander Cockburn and one or two more of its "leaders." He obtained the honour of a silk gown from Lord Brougham in 1834, and at the general election of 1837 he found his way into the House of Commons as one of the members for the city of Oxford, having succeeded, after a severe contest, to the seat formerly held by Mr. Hughes-Hughes. He did not, however, hold a seat for Oxford beyond one Parliament, for in 1841 he declined to seek re-election. In 1845 he was promoted—not, however, by his own party, but by Lord Lyndhurst—to a Puisne Judgeship of the Court of Common Pleas, in the room of Mr. Justice Maule. In the following year he was transferred to the Court of Queen's Bench, on which he held a seat down to 1859, when the promotion of Sir Alexander Cockburn placed at the disposal of the Ministry the Chief Justiceship of the Court of which he had previously been a member. In both Courts he gained the reputation not only of an accurate, painstaking, upright, and conscientious, but also of "a strong" Judge; and it is little to say that he was widely and deservedly respected on the Bench. Sir William Erle held this exalted post, discharging its duties with an integrity and conscientiousness which could not be surpassed, and when he resigned his seat on the Bench, owing to the pressure of advancing years, in 1866, he was greeted with all possible acknowledgments of personal attachment from all the members of the Court over which he had presided for seven years. Since his retirement from public life Sir William Erle has lived the life of a country gentleman and a resident landlord at an estate near Bramshott, in the picturesque neighbourhood of Liphook and Haslemere. Here he was always foremost in every good and charitable work, subscribing largely to the erection of churches, schools, and parsonages. Though not a sportsman, he was fond of his horses and dogs, as well as of his tenantry, among whom his genial presence and kindly smile were always a welcome sight. He was fond also of society, but shone nowhere more brightly than in his own family circle. Sir William Erle received the honour of knighthood on his elevation to the Bench, and on his retirement it is believed that an hereditary title—a ba-

ronetcy, if not a peerage—awaited him, if he had cared for such an honour. He was sworn a Privy Councillor in 1859. Sir William married, in 1834, Amelia, daughter of the late Rev. Dr. Williams, Warden of New College, Oxford.

Mr. John Locke, Q.C., M.P. for Southwark, and Recorder of Brighton, died January 29, at his residence in Eaton Square, in the 75th year of his age. The only son of the late Mr. John Locke, of Herne Hill, Surrey, by his marriage with Alice, daughter of the late Mr. W. Cartwright, he was born in London in 1805, and was educated under Dr. Glennie at Dulwich, and at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. in 1829, and proceeded M.A. in due course. In Easter Term, 1833, he was called to the Bar by the Honourable Society of the Inner Temple, of which he became a Bencher. He joined the Home Circuit, and attended the Surrey Sessions. He was elected a Common Pleader of the City of London in 1845, but resigned that office on being made a Queen's Counsel in 1857. In 1861 he was appointed Recorder of Brighton; and he was for some time a director of the London and Provincial Law Assurance Society. Mr. Locke was the author of a "Treatise on the Game Laws" and the "Doctrine and Practice of Foreign Attachment in the Lord Mayor's Court of London." In 1852 he unsuccessfully contested Hastings in the Liberal interest, but in April 1857, he was elected for Southwark, and has since continued one of the representatives of that constituency. In Parliament he took a prominent part in supporting those measures which conduce to the welfare of the working classes. He married in 1847 Laura Rosalie, daughter of the late Colonel Thomas Alexander Cobbe, of the Hon. East India Company's service, and niece of the late Mr. Charles Cobbe, of Newbridge House, county Dublin.

Rev. Frederick Oakeley, formerly Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford, and minister of Margaret Street Chapel, but for the last thirty years "Missionary Rector" of St. John's Roman Catholic Church, Duncan Terrace, Islington. He was one of the especial friends and supporters of Dr. Pusey and Dr. Newman when the Oxford tracts were in the course of publication, and one of the principal supporters of Mr. W. G. Ward in that contest which he waged against the University authorities on account of their condemnation of the

principles of his "Ideal Church." Mr. Oakeley was in the 78th year of his age, and his death happened at Islington on January 29, after a long illness. The youngest son of Sir Charles Oakeley, the first baronet, sometime Governor of Madras, &c., by his marriage with Helena, only daughter of the late Mr. Robert Beatson, of Killerie, Fifeshire, and brother of the late Very Rev. Sir Herbert Oakeley, Dean of Bocking, he was born in the year 1802, and after a course of private study under Rev. Charles Richard Sumner, curate of High Clere and afterwards Bishop of Winchester, he entered at Christ Church, Oxford, where he took his Bachelor's degree in Easter Term, 1824, obtaining a second class in the School of *Litteræ Humaniores*. He obtained the Chancellor's prize for a Latin essay in 1825, the subject being "On the Power of the Tribunes among the Romans;" and again in 1827 for an English essay "On the Influence of the Crusades on the Art and Literature of Europe." He was in due course elected to a Fellowship of Balliol College, and in 1830 he was appointed tutor in Balliol, the year following he was nominated one of the select preachers, and in 1835 became one of the public examiners. In 1837 he received from the Bishop of London the appointment of Oxford Preacher at the Chapel Royal, Whitehall. Up to this period Mr. Oakeley's religious opinions were of a kind which might be described as "combining the piety of the Low Church party with the orthodoxy and apostolic spirit of the Higher." Before he had left the University the Tractarian movement had commenced, but at first Mr. Oakeley had little or no sympathy with it. The first public announcement of his Tractarian opinions was in the preface of a volume of sermons preached at Whitehall Chapel. The Bishop of London, to whom it was dedicated, wrote requesting the dedication might at once be cancelled. In 1839 Mr. Oakeley became minister of Margaret Chapel, Margaret Street—a place of worship which has undergone many vicissitudes. He at once set to work to renovate the building, which was modelled on extreme Protestant principles. The new minister placed a plain cross over the Communion Table, which brought down on him the remonstrance of his Bishop, Dr. Blomfield, the prelude to a series of painful struggles between the feelings of the minister and some members of the congregation. Mr. Oakeley succeeded on the whole "in raising the character of the

worship at Margaret Chapel." He was undoubtedly the first clergyman in London to introduce that form of external worship which is now popularly known by the name of Ritualism, although the most startling of the changes which he introduced were modern itself compared with those which are now tolerated. The services were highly popular among the aristocratic and educated classes of the metropolis, and he numbered among his congregation such men as Mr. Gladstone, Serjeant Bellasis, and Mr. Hope-Scott. Mr. Gladstone thus spoke of the services in the *Contemporary Review* of October, 1874:—"The Papal Church now enjoys the advantage of the labours of Mr. Oakeley, who united to a fine musical taste a much finer and much rarer gift in discerning and expressing the harmony between the inward purposes of Christian work and its outward investiture, and who then gathered around him a congregation the most devout and hearty that I, for one, have ever seen in any community of the Christian world." However, in the meantime things had arrived at a crisis in the University by Mr. Ward being deprived of his degrees as "a maintainer of forbidden doctrine." Mr. Oakeley generously placed himself on his friend's side, and wrote a pamphlet in which he announced his adhesion to the same principles as those for which Mr. Ward had been condemned. He was arraigned before the Court of Arches, where the pamphlet was condemned piecemeal, Mr. Oakeley not having appeared. He now quitted London, and took up his temporary abode at Littlemoor, near Oxford, where John Henry Newman had established a kind of Anglican Community; and he was received into the Roman Catholic Church on October 29, 1845. His subsequent career may be summed up briefly. After studying in St. Edmund's College, Ware, he was ordained priest in 1848 by the late Cardinal Wiseman. He was first appointed one of the assistant priests in St. George's, Southwark, where he remained until January, 1850, when he was appointed Missionary Rector of St. John's, Islington, a post which he retained for the remainder of his life. In 1852, on the re-establishment of the Catholic hierarchy, he was nominated a canon of Westminster.]

Count John Dzialynski died on January 31, at his country seat, Kurnik, near Posen. He belonged to an ancient and opulent family, which played a conspicuous part in the history of Poland,

and was a son of Count Titus Dzialynski, a profound scholar. He was one of the organisers of the Polish insurrection of 1863, for which he made considerable sacrifices, and in which he took an active part. In several battles he distinguished himself by personal bravery and determination. Condemned to death for this conduct, and his estates having been sequestered, he went to Paris and devoted himself entirely to scientific

pursuits. He was the editor of a Polish publication called *Library of Technical Sciences*, and for the higher development of the Polish youth he founded and liberally supported a special institution. After the promulgation of the general amnesty he returned to his estates, where, in retirement and amid great bodily sufferings, he continued his studies.

Amongst the other deaths of the month the following may be mentioned:—At Stockholm, the **Countess Fersen Gyldenstolpe**, the last survivor of the Fersen family—and whose grandfather, disguised as a coachman, drove Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette to Varennes—was examining on New Year's Eve a thermometer hung outside her room, when her lamp set fire to the curtains. Her clothes were caught by the flames, and, despite prompt assistance, she was so seriously burnt that she shortly afterwards died. On January 3, as **Dr. Alexander Pagenstecher**, the well-known Wiesbaden ophthalmist was returning from a shooting excursion, his breechloader, which was lying behind him in his sledge, went off, the ball passing through his head and mortally wounding him. He died a few hours after the accident. Dr. Pagenstecher, who was only 55 years of age, had long been director of the Ophthalmic Hospital in Wiesbaden. At Rome, on January 4, **Luigi Vincenzi**, Greek Writer in the Vatican Library, and Professor of Hebrew in the Roman University. At Abinger, on January 5, **Francis Stephen Cary**, aged 71, son of H. S. Cary, the translator of Dante. He succeeded Sass, who established the well-known School of Art in Bloomsbury, in which, between 1840 and 1870, many subsequently well-known sculptors and artists were taught. At Dublin, on January 9, aged 76, **Richard Montesquieu Bellew**, senior member of the Local Government Board, and for many years member for the County Louth. On January 11, at Darmstadt, **Major-General Arthur Scudamore, C.B.**, aged 63. He entered the army as cornet in 1835, serving with the 4th Light Dragoons throughout the Afghan campaigns of 1838 and 1839, including the siege and capture of Ghazni. In 1847 he was promoted to the rank of captain, and in the following year served through the Punjab campaign, taking part in the principal engagements, and being seriously wounded at the battle of Goojerat. Ten years later he commanded his regiment under Sir Hugh Rose in Central India during the Mutiny. For six months he commanded a flying column in the Gwalior and Jhansi districts, for which service he was made C.B. and Brevet Lieutenant-Colonel. On January 12, at New York, **Henry Carter**, better known by his *nom de crayon* "Frank Leslie." He was born at Ipswich, in Suffolk, and began life as a wood engraver, working chiefly for the *Illustrated London News*. He subsequently went to the United States, where he established the paper which bears his name. On January 12, at Brera, near Milan, aged 82, **Paolo Frisiani**, astronomer and mathematician. In 1822 he entered the Brera Observatory as assistant to Piola, and remained attached to the Lombard Institute ever afterwards, rising to the post of Chief of the Observatory. On January 15, at Aaran, Switzerland, aged 60, **Herr Feer-Herzog**, an eminent financier and writer on political economy, who for many years represented Switzerland in the Latin Monetary Union. On January 15, at Leamington, **Mr. Frederick Manning**, aged 83, the son of Mr. William Manning, of Coomb Bank, near Sevenoaks, sometime M.P. for Leamington, and Governor of the Bank of England. Mr. Manning devoted much of his wealth to Protestant charities and church-building. He was the elder brother of Cardinal Manning. On January 16, at Carlett Park, Cheshire, **Mr. John Torr**, M.P. for Liverpool, aged 67. He was elected as a Conservative in 1873, on the death of Mr. S. R. Graves, and sat as member for the constituency during the Parliament elected in 1874. On January 18, at Versailles, **Léonée de Lavergne**, a life Senator, one of the Walloon group of the Moderates whose votes in the French Assembly of 1871 turned the scale in favour of the Republic. On January 24, at Fareham, **Major-General Alexander Boyd**, aged 62. He served in the Scinde War under Sir Charles Napier, 1844-45, and throughout the Punjab campaign, 1848-49, in Burmah in 1854-55, and at the siege of Delhi, 1857. On January 24, at Paris, the **Abbé Noirot**, aged 86, the friend of Lamennais, Lacordaire, and Montalembert. As Professor of Philosophy at Lyons was the master

of Ozanam and other distinguished men. On January 24, at Ryde, **Lieut.-General William George Woods, C.S.I.**, late of the Madras Staff Corps, and formerly of the Madras Cavalry. He was employed in suppressing the insurrections in Canara in 1837, at Bundeland in 1842-43, and in the Gwalior campaign. On January 27, at London, aged 65, **Genl. the Honble. Sir George Cadogan, K.C.B.**, Colonel of the Grenadier Guards, with which regiment he served with distinction in the Crimea. At Brussels, on January 29, **M. Paul Devaux**, one of the founders of Belgian independence, in his 80th year. He first advocated the cause as a journalist in 1824, was one of the deputation to London in 1830, and was an able speaker in the Chamber, but refused to take office, his influence earning him the appellation of the "Invisible Premier." In 1840 he established the *Revue Nationale* as a Liberal organ; but he had for some years withdrawn from public life. In London, January 30, **Dr. A. J. Stephens, Q.C.**, a well-known ecclesiastical lawyer, aged 68. On January 31, the **Marquess of Anglesey**, aged 58; succeeded his father in 1869; he left no issue, the title passing to his half-brother Lord Henry Paget. On January 31, in Central Africa, the **Abbé Debaise**, who had undertaken to traverse the continent from Zanzibar to the West Coast. He left Paris in March 1878, and in about a year had reached Ujiji, whence he again started to explore the western slopes of the Blue Mountains. He died of fever.

FEBRUARY.

Sir Charles Pressly, K.C.B., late Chairman of the Board of Inland Revenue, died on February 1, at his residence in the Avenue Road, London. Born in 1794 at Warminster, he commenced life as a solicitor, and in 1818 entered the public service as a clerk in the Solicitor's Office of Stamps at Somerset House, and very soon after his appointment succeeded to the position of chief clerk in that office. In 1823 a Parliamentary Commission was appointed to inquire into the management of the Stamp Revenue in Ireland, and Mr. Pressly was called upon to assist that Commission with professional advice. The result of this Commission was the abolition of the Board of Stamps at Dublin, and the formation of a provisional Board, to which, in recognition of the valuable services he had rendered, Mr. Pressly was appointed secretary. In 1824 a Commission was appointed to inquire into the Stamp Revenue in Scotland, and in 1826 a similar Commission of Inquiry was appointed for England, and Mr. Pressly was called upon to assist and advise both these Commissions. In 1826, on the recommendation of the Parliamentary Commission, he was appointed secretary to the Board of Stamps for England, and when filling this office he suggested the consolidation of that Board with the Board of Taxes, a reform which was carried into effect, and Mr. Pressly became secretary to the new Consolidated Board. In 1848, after the consolidation of the Boards of Excise, Stamps, and Taxes, Mr. Pressly was offered a

seat at the new Board of Inland Revenue by Sir Charles Wood, and in 1855 Sir George Cornewall Lewis appointed him Deputy-Chairman. In 1856, Mr. John Wood, the Chairman of the Board, died, and Mr. Pressly succeeded him, and continued to hold the appointment until his retirement in 1862. Mr. Pressly's retirement was the subject of a most complimentary Treasury minute, and in recognition of his services he was allowed his full salary as a pension. After his retirement from the chairmanship of the Board, Mr. Pressly continued to perform the duties of special Commissioner of Income Tax, and finally retired from the public service in 1864, after having faithfully served the public for forty-six years. In 1861 he was made C.B., and K.C.B. in 1866. He married, in 1825, Miss Anne Thompson, of Andover, by whom he had two sons and two daughters.

Sir Dominic Corrigan died on February 1, at his residence in Dublin. A son of the late Mr. John Corrigan, an eminent merchant of Dublin, he was born in the year 1802, and was educated at the University of Edinburgh, where he graduated M.D. as far back as 1826. In 1843 he was admitted a member of the Royal College of Surgeons, England; and six years later he proceeded to take the degree of Doctor of Medicine at Trinity College, Dublin. He was elected on five occasions in succession President of the King's and Queen's College of Physicians in Ireland, and once at least President of

the Pathological Society of Ireland. He was also physician to the Queen in that country, and acted for several years as physician to the House of Industry Hospitals in Dublin. He had also been Vice-Chancellor of the Queen's University in Ireland since 1871. He was the author of several important contributions to many journals, on such subjects as "Fever in General," and "Famine and Fever considered as Cause and Effect in Ireland." As the acknowledged head of the medical profession in the sister island he was raised to the dignity of a baronet in 1866. He sat also in Parliament as one of the members for the city of Dublin, in the Liberal interest, from August 1870 down to the commencement of 1874, when he retired. Sir Dominic Corrigan married, in 1829, Joanna Mary, daughter of the late Mr. William Woodlock, of Dublin, by whom he had a family of three sons and three daughters.

Mr. M'Combie, of Tillyfour, the distinguished agriculturist and late member of Parliament for the Western Division of Aberdeenshire, died on February 1, at his residence at Tillyfour, Aberdeenshire, in his 75th year. He had a remarkably successful career as an agriculturist, more especially as a breeder and feeder of cattle. Born where he died, at the Home Farm of Tillyfour, which belonged to his father, he was educated at the parish school and at Aberdeen. Besides farming on a large scale, his father carried on an extensive business as a lean cattle dealer; but he desired that his son should betake himself to one of the learned professions. But from an early period young M'Combie showed that the bent of his mind was in the direction of his father's calling. In course of time he obtained possession of the farm of Tillyfour, and extended the business of cattle-dealing; but the introduction of railways, artificial manures, and short-horns into the north of Scotland soon satisfied him that the driving of lean cattle from the breeding districts of the north to the feeding counties of the south of Scotland and England had had its day. About 1840 he turned his attention to the breeding and feeding of the race of black polled cattle with which his name has long been associated. To this business, as well as to the management of about 1,200 acres of arable land, he devoted his whole attention for nearly a quarter of a century. He was the first to demon-

strate the valuable feeding qualities of the Scotch polled cattle, and was the first Scotch exhibitor of fat stock at Birmingham. He repeatedly carried the championship there, and won the blue riband at Smithfield in 1866. His prizes, both for breeding and fat stock, have been almost innumerable, and include the cup given by the late Prince Albert at Poissy in 1862 for the best animal of the French and foreign classes, and the group prize at the Paris Exhibition of 1878. This very high honour was Mr. M'Combie's crowning effort in the breeding stock shows. On his triumphant return from the Poissy Exhibition, in 1862, he was entertained at dinner by about forty noblemen and gentlemen in honour of his singular successes as a breeder and exhibitor of a hardy race of stock. He was also entertained at dinner in his native district by about 400 agricultural labourers, herdsmen, and others, in recognition of the many benefits conferred by him on the working classes. The fame of his champion ox of 1866 reached the ears of the Queen, and by Royal command the animal was sent to Smithfield to be inspected by her Majesty. In the following year her Majesty did Mr. M'Combie the honour of paying him a visit at Tillyfour. Mr. M'Combie, fully sensible of the honour which the Queen bestowed upon him, collected about 400 cattle, all black and hornless, from his various farms, for his sovereign's inspection. About this time Mr. M'Combie published a book entitled *Cattle and Cattle Breeders*, which has reached a third edition. In 1868 he was elected M.P. for the Western Division of Aberdeen. He was the first tenant-farmer returned from Scotland, and the second in Britain. In his own plain, pointed manner he lost no opportunity in the House of advocating the views of his brother farmers. In 1874 he was returned over Mr. Edward Ross by a majority of about eight to one; but he was obliged, by failing health, to resign in 1876. His brother agriculturists, in recognition of his services and their personal esteem, then established at Aberdeen a handsome annual prize commemorating his name and his connection with his favourite breed.

The Right Hon. Sir George Hamilton Seymour, G.C.B., G.C.H., died on February 2, at his residence in Grosvenor Crescent. He was the eldest son of the late Lord George Seymour, by his marriage with Isabella, daughter of

the Hon. and Rev. George Hamilton, and grandson of Francis, first Marquess of Hertford; was born in the year 1797, and was educated at Merton College, Oxford, where he took his Bachelor's degree in 1818, and proceeded M.A. in 1823. In 1817 he entered the Diplomatic Service as Attaché to the Embassy at the Hague. In 1819 he was appointed assistant *précis* writer in the Foreign Office; he was promoted to *précis* writer in 1821, and in the following year was made private secretary. In October of the same year he was attached to a special mission to Verona, and in 1823 he was appointed Secretary of Legation at Frankfurt. He was transferred in the same capacity to Stuttgart in 1826, and to Berlin in 1828. He was made Secretary of Embassy at Constantinople in 1829, minister resident at Florence in 1830, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary at Brussels in 1836, and transferred in the same capacity to Lisbon in 1846, and to St. Petersburg in 1851. In 1854 he was recalled to England, and in the following year he was appointed envoy to Austria, where he remained till 1858, when he retired from the Diplomatic Service on a well-earned pension. He received the honour of knighthood, and also the Grand Cross of the Hanoverian Order in 1836, and was nominated a Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath (civil division) in 1847. Sir George Seymour, who was sworn a member of the Privy Council in 1855, married in 1831 the Hon. Gertrude Brand, third daughter of Henry Otway, 20th Lord Dacre.

Charles Coudert, the last survivor of the Saumur conspiracy of 1821 for the overthrow of the Bourbons and restoration of the Republic, died on February 3, in the United States, at the age of 84. He was condemned to death, and Madame Recamier vainly interceded for clemency; but his brother Eugène, having gained permission to send him packets of books, gradually supplied him with a suit of clothes, bribed the turnkey not to lock his cell, and distracted the attention of another official by picking a quarrel with him, while the prisoner with the air of an inspector walked past various turnkeys and left the prison. This happened the day before that fixed for the execution, and though the escape was almost immediately discovered, he remained in hiding till, vigilance being diverted by his brother personating him in London, he succeeded in joining him, and settled

in America. Napoleon III. conferred on him the Legion of Honour and the St. Helena medal.

The Count de Castelnau, for many years French Consul at Melbourne, died on February 4, at his residence, Apsley Place, East Melbourne. He was an ardent student of natural history, and had pursued his studies in the various parts of the world whither his official duties led him. He was director of the scientific expedition sent by Louis-Philippe, the King of the French, to South America, and afterwards French Consul in divers parts of the southern hemisphere. While at the Cape of Good Hope he wrote a "*Mémoire sur les Poissons de l'Afrique Australe*." When he returned to Europe and began to put his voluminous notes in order, he made the disheartening discovery that, while he had been temporarily disabled, his servant had been for more than a month in the habit of using the sheets of paper on which he had bestowed so much time and labour to light the fires. He disposed of the remainder of his notes and drawings to Professor Lacordaire, and about 1862 arrived in Melbourne, where he subsequently resided. Count Castelnau was an active member of the Zoological and Acclimatisation Society of Victoria. He contributed several valuable papers on the fishes of Australia, which have been published by the Society and are recognised by naturalists as works of authority on the subject.

Karl von Holter, born at Breslau in 1798, made the campaign of Waterloo as a volunteer in the Prussian ranks, but, speedily quitting military service, he became an actor for a short time, and subsequently a theatrical manager and playwright. For his first wife, a popular Berlin actress, he wrote two musical dramas, "*The Viennese at Berlin*" and "*The Berliners in Vienna*," which are still performed. After his wife's death in 1833, he resumed the life of a strolling player and *improvisario*. In 1876, after more than forty years of wandering, he was received in the asylum of the Brothers of Mercy at Breslau, where he died on February 5, aged nearly 82.

The Very Rev. Henry Parr Hamilton, M.A., F.R.S., Dean of Salisbury, died on February 7, aged 87. He was the son of Dr. Alexander Hamilton, a physician of Edinburgh and a professor in the University. He graduated at

Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1814, taking high honours, and was subsequently elected a Fellow of his college. Having for some years held a living in Yorkshire, he was in 1850 appointed to the Deanery of Salisbury. He was the author of various mathematical works—"The Principles of Analytical Geometry," "Analytical Systems of Conic Sections," &c., besides various educational and theological works.

Sir Theodore Henry Lavington Brinckman, Bart., died on February 9, at St. Leonard's, Windsor, in the 83rd year of his age. The eldest son of the late Mr. Theodore Henry Broadhead, by his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Mr. William Gordon Macdougall, he was born in London in 1798, and represented Yarmouth in Parliament from 1820 down to 1826. He was created a baronet in 1831, and resumed the family name of Brinckman, in lieu of that of Broadhead, by royal licence in 1842; his grandfather had taken the latter name, instead of the former, under Act of Parliament. The late baronet was twice married—first, in 1829, to the Hon. Charlotte Osborne, only daughter of Francis, first Lord Godolphin, which lady died in 1838; and secondly, in 1841, to Annabella, daughter of the late Mr. John Corbet, of Sundorne Castle, Shropshire, and was again left a widower in 1864.

Thomas F. Elliot died on February 12, at Cairo, having survived his wife only four days, both succumbing to typhoid fever. He was the son of the late Right Hon. Hugh Elliot, sometime Governor of Madras, by his marriage with Miss Margaret Lewis, and cousin of the late Earl of Minto; he was born in London in the year 1808, and was educated at Harrow. In 1825 he entered the Colonial Office, and was secretary to the Earl of Gosford's Commission of Inquiry in Canada from 1835 to 1837, when he was appointed chief of the first department of Emigration in England, an office which he held down to 1847. From that date to the end of 1868 he held the post of Assistant Under-Secretary for the Colonies. Sir Thomas, who was nominated a Knight Commander of the Order of St. Michael and St. George in 1869, was twice married, first, in 1833, to Jane—daughter of the late Mr. James Perry, formerly proprietor and editor of the *Morning Chronicle*—who died in 1861; and secondly, in 1869, to Elizabeth—daughter of the late Admiral

Sir Robert Howe Bromley, of Stoke Hall, Nottinghamshire—whom, as just stated, he survived but a few days.

Sir William Bagge, M.P. for West Norfolk, died on February 12, at his seat, Stradsett Hall, in the 70th year of his age. He was the eldest surviving son of the late Mr. Thomas P. Bagge, of Stradsett Hall, Norfolk, by his marriage with Grace, daughter of Mr. Richard Salisbury, of Castle Park, Lancaster, and was born in the year 1810. He was educated at the Charterhouse, under Dr. Russell, and subsequently at Balliol College, Oxford. He was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant for Norfolk, and was an unsuccessful candidate for the representation of that county in 1835. He was first elected for West Norfolk along with the late Mr. W. L. Wiggett Chute, at the General Election of 1837, a contest remembered in Norfolk to the present day as having displaced the former members, Sir Jacob Astley and Sir William Ffolkes, and having broken, as it was thought, the influence of "Coke of Holkham." At the General Election of 1852 he was again returned, and this time with a Conservative colleague by his side—namely, Mr. G. W. P. Bentinck, one of the present members for the division. Sir W. Bagge sat out the Parliament until its dissolution in 1857, after which he remained for some years outside the walls of St. Stephen's. When, however, Lord Palmerston made his last appeal to the people, in the summer of 1865, Sir W. Bagge once more offered himself to his old constituents, and was returned at the head of the poll with the Hon. T. De Grey, the present Lord Walsingham. In 1868 he secured re-election with Mr. De Grey, although the Liberals made a show of resistance. Between 1868 and 1874 Mr. De Grey became Lord Walsingham, and Mr. Bentinck once more joined Sir William Bagge as a colleague. In 1874 the constituency re-elected its old members almost as a matter of course, and Sir William Bagge died in political harness. He was created a baronet in 1867. He married, in 1833, Frances, daughter of the late Sir Thomas Preston, of Beeston, Norfolk, by whom he has left a family.

Rev. Dr. Alexander Keith ("Prophecy Keith") died on February 8, at Buxton, in his 90th year. Born in the manse of Keith Hall, Aberdeenshire, in 1791, he studied at Marischal College,

Aberdeen, and was ordained minister of St. Cyrus's parish, in Forfarshire, in 1816. The ordinary duties of a Scottish rural parish afford few events of interest, but Dr. Keith at an early age obtained wide distinction as an author. His first book, on "The Fulfilment of Prophecy," appeared in 1823. It soon took its place as a standard treatise on the Christian Evidences, and, after passing through a vast number of editions, and in many forms, has recently been reprinted in a series of cheap volumes, along with Paley's "Evidences," Butler's "Analogy," and other classics. There are few foreign languages into which the book has not been translated. At subsequent periods Dr. Keith published various works on prophetic subjects, the most popular of which were "The Signs of the Times, illustrated by the Fulfilment of Historical Predictions," and "The Harmony of Prophecy," being a comparison of the Book of Revelation with other prophecies of Scripture. But none of his works reached the popularity of the "Evidences," of which Dr. Chalmers said that "it is recognised in our halls of theology as holding a high place in sacred literature, and it is found in almost every home and known as a household word throughout the land." In 1844 Dr. Keith, accompanied by his son, Dr. George Keith, since so distinguished as a surgeon, revisited the lands of the Bible, and was the first to take daguerreotype views of notable places in Syria, from which illustrations were given in subsequent editions of the "Evidences." For many years Dr. Keith had retired from public duties, but continued to the last to take deep interest in his favourite studies. He contributed, only two years ago, a series of papers to a popular periodical on "The Prophecies concerning the Russian and the Turkish Empires." In 1843 he was among the founders of the Free Church of Scotland, the Moderatorship of which was repeatedly offered to him, but declined on account of his infirm health.

Albert Eymar died on February 20, at Geneva, in his 89th year, the *doyen* of its pastors and in some sense a historic character. He went through the fiery ordeal of the French Revolution, and took part in the redemption of his native land from a foreign yoke. The late pastor belonged to an old Huguenot family which, constrained by persecution to leave their home in France, settled in Geneva in the eighteenth century. His father was pastor of Jussy

when the canton was overrun by the hordes of French *sans-culottes*, who made a clean sweep of all the old institutions of the place and established a reign of terror in their stead, and the violence he received at the hands of the invaders materially shortened his days. Albert was one of five brothers, all of whom were left dependent on their mother, a woman bred in the stern school of persecution; who, entirely by her own exertions, brought up her sons respectably and imbued them with her own passion for liberty and attachment to the faith of their fathers. After taking an active part in the government of Geneva between the expulsion of the French in 1814 and the reunion of the canton to the Confederation, young Eymar entered the Church and became pastor of Fernex, but, as the emoluments of the ministry at that period were altogether inadequate to the support of a family, and he had conscientious objections to combining, as many of his brethren did, his sacred calling with a worldly business, he resigned his charge and betook himself for a season to teaching, only, however, to resume his pastoral duties a few years afterwards in the commune of Genthod, where he remained until his death. M. Eymar was a man of great intelligence and considerable scholarship, and as he had met in his long life many celebrated characters, and his memory was good to the last, his conversation was extremely interesting. He liked much to talk about Lord Byron, with whom he had been on intimate terms when the poet was staying at Geneva, and in his frequent visits to England and France in the early part of the century he had formed the acquaintance of not a few personages whose names are now familiar as household words.

Mr. Stewart Brown, of the great banking-house of Messrs. Brown, Brothers, & Co., of New York, died on February 19, in that city. About 1798 Alexander Brown, a linen merchant, went to the United States and settled in Baltimore, where he established a linen-house. As his sons became of age they were taken into their father's business, and the firm was changed to Alexander Brown & Sons. In order to extend their business, branch houses were established. William Brown, the eldest son, went to Liverpool in 1809, and attained great success there. Soon afterwards the next two sons, George and John, established houses in Phila-

delphia and Boston. James, who died in November 1877, went to New York to establish the present house in that city. Although at first the linen business was continued, the intention from the start was to change it to the present system of banking. This occurred about 1827. From the time the house was established it has been one of the most prominent firms of New York. During the panic of 1837 the firm held American bills for a very large amount. This amount included 800,000*l.* of protested paper, and engagements were to be met in England amounting to nearly 10,000,000 dollars. The resources of the firm were largely invested in American securities, which were not available at that time. This rendered it almost impossible to draw bills or remit specie to England while a panic prevailed in Europe as well as in the United States. At this crisis the English branch of the firm succeeded in securing a loan from the Bank of England sufficient to meet all engagements in the United States. Securities to the amount of 25,000,000 dollars were deposited. In six months the whole sum was returned to the Bank of England.

Right Rev. Monsignor Russell, President to the Roman Catholic College at Maynooth, a learned ecclesiastic and a man who, though never publicly prominent, exercised in his time considerable influence on religious thought in England. Monsignor Russell was born in the year 1812 at Killough, county Down. As the boy showed a religious bent, he was sent to Maynooth when in his 14th year. He there shared the prevalent devotion to a wider intellectual culture than was necessary for the ecclesiastical office, and gave early evidence of literary talent. Languages and patristic literature divided his attention with theology. His progress was so marked that he was when still a youth elected a student of the Dunboyne establishment, and when only 23 was chosen for the Professorship of Humanity at Maynooth. Seven years later Pope Gregory XVI. selected Dr. Russell for the New Apostolic Vicariate of Ceylon. Before he reached his 30th year he had begun to influence the Oxford movement in England. Personally he was unknown to the leaders of the movement, but his reputation stood high at Oxford, and he was often applied to for information and suggestion on the points arising in the Tractarian controversy. Through a formal call made by him on Dr. New-

man, in the summer of 1841, a correspondence arose which resulted in the final determination of the latter to join the Roman Catholic Church. Dr. Newman, in his "Apologia," gives a portion of the correspondence, and says that Dr. Russell had more to do with his conversion than anyone else. Dr. Russell was selected by Dr. Wiseman as his chief coadjutor in the conduct of the *Dublin Review*, and among his contributions were some of the most notable of the essays on the Oxford movement. In the year of Dr. Newman's secession Dr. Russell was appointed to the Chair of Ecclesiastical History at Maynooth. He translated and annotated Leibnitz's "System of Theology," and wrote a valuable biography of Cardinal Mezzofanti. On matters of ecclesiastical history and patristic literature he was a frequent contributor to the *Reviews*. Articles of his are to be found in the "English Encyclopædia" and the "Encyclopædia Britannica." It was believed by many that he would be selected to fill the vacant see of Armagh in 1849, and later on it was anticipated that he would be appointed to his native diocese. But he himself had an aversion to episcopal promotion, and preferred the quiet student life of the great sacerdotal seminary. In 1857 he became President of Maynooth. The Government of the day recognised his erudition by naming him a member of the Historical Manuscripts Commission in 1869, and, in conjunction with Mr. J. P. Prendergast, he made an important contribution to the materials of English history by a "Report on the Carte Manuscripts in the Bodleian Library," which was published in 1871, and fills eight volumes. But so little did he covet distinction in the Church that it was only within the past few years that he was enrolled one of the domestic prelates of the Pope. When Cardinal Cullen died, Dr. Russell was spoken of as his probable successor in the Sacred College, if not in the Archbishopric of Dublin, and up to the time of his death it was believed that the learned and retiring President of Maynooth would be the first Irish Cardinal created by Leo XIII. He died on February 26, before this honour, if destined for him, could be conferred.

"**Countess of Derwentwater.**"—The eccentric lady who styled herself "Countess of Derwentwater," and laid claim to the vast estates formerly belonging to the Derwentwater family, died on February 26. It is now twenty years since this lady first notified her existence to

the world, and her career since then has been full of interesting incidents. History records that John Radcliffe, the fourth Earl of Derwentwater, died in London in 1731, at the early age of 19. The "Countess," however, asserted that he was smuggled over to Germany, where he married in 1741 and left a large family, of which she was the only surviving representative in a direct line through males. Twenty years ago she came to this country and communicated her identity to those whom she deemed worthy of her confidence. She, however, restricted her immediate operations to the sending of vague warnings to the tenants on the various estates. In 1869 she once more emerged from obscurity, securing the assistance of Mr. Harry Brown, then a bailiff of the Shotley Bridge Court. The local agents of the Admiralty were at Haydon Bridge on the occasion of one of the regular rent-days, and a large portion of the tenants were in attendance. While the receiver was proceeding with the business, the "Countess" entered, accompanied by her henchman, and called upon the tenants to pay their rents to her. A lively scene ensued. Eventually the room was cleared. Her next act was to enter upon the grounds at Dilston and take up her quarters in the ruins of the old castle, from which she had to be forcibly ejected. She then took up her residence upon the highway in a wooden shed erected by some of her sympathisers, until the highway authorities were obliged to interfere. She next entered a distrait for rent on Newlands Farm, on the Whittington Estate, of which the Admiralty had possession, and went so far as actually to sell the live stock by auction. The law interfered, whereupon a mob assembled and a riot ensued. Fortunately no blood was shed, owing in great measure to the prudence of the police in making no arrests upon the spot. In consequence of this affair,

the Admiralty brought an action against the lady and recovered 500*l.* damages. She was adjudicated a bankrupt, and committed for a time to Newcastle Gaol for refusing to answer questions when before the Court. Her intractable behaviour continued down to a very recent date. The "Countess" devoted much of her time to the study of the fine arts, and painted several pictures in oil. It may be worth while to add that her ladyship's claim has been made the subject of a careful investigation and has proved entirely groundless.

Dr. Edward Zimmermann died on February 29, aged 69, one of the Berlin members of the Reichstag. He was well known in England, where he lived for many years, a refugee after the events of 1848, practising as an English solicitor. He was brought up to the Prussian Bar, and rose rapidly in his profession till 1848, when he was drawn into the political whirlpool. He was sent to the first German Parliament, and sat in it till it was broken up. As one of the members who followed it to Stuttgart, he was condemned for high treason and placed in a fortress, whence he escaped to England. In London he resolutely set to work rebuilding his fortunes, and by 1861, when the amnesty admitted him again to his native country, he was able to convey to Berlin an extensive practice in international business. With the revival of Parliaments in Germany he was re-elected by his old constituency, as well as by Berlin, for one of the districts of which he ever since sat. As an influential member of the small, but very able, group called the "Party of Progress" in the Reichstag, and an ardent admirer of England, whose institutions were almost a standard of excellence for him, he will be regretted by many friends in both countries.

The following also deserve to be mentioned:—At Naples, on February 2, aged 88, **General Schmid**, a native of Altorf, canton Uri; first served in the ranks of the French army, where he gained his promotion to the rank of commandant. In 1847 he commanded a brigade in the Sonderbund War; was elected Land-ammann of his canton. In 1854 he entered the Papal service; suppressed a revolt at Perugia in 1869, but capitulated to General Fanti in 1860. **Sophia**, widow of the late William Thomas Pentecost, on February 8, at South Lambeth, in her 113th year. **Catherine Jane Jarvis**, Countess of Chesterfield, on February 3, at Rockwood, Strabane, co. Tyrone. **Rev. Henry Moule, M.A.**, Vicar of Fordington, Dorset, on February 3, aged 79, the author of several writings on drainage and the inventor of the dry earth-closets. He was a prominent member of the Evangelical party in the diocese of Salisbury, and a staunch teetotaler. **Mr. Myles William Patrick O'Reilly**, at Dublin, on February 6,

aged 55; represented co. Longford as a Liberal from 1862 till April 1879, when he accepted the post of Assistant-Commissioner of Intermediate Education in Ireland. In the Italian war of independence he commanded the Irish brigade of the Papal army, which took part in several skirmishes with the Garibaldians. **Alfred Woltmann**, on February 6, at Mentone, the well-known German art critic and historian. He was born in 1841 at Charlottenburg. He lived principally in Berlin until 1878, when he was appointed Professor at Strasburg. He was the author of a "History of Painting," and many other art works. **Mr. Robert Baker, C.B.**, late Chief Inspector of Factories; at Leamington, on February 6, aged 76. He was originally a member of the medical profession, and devoted great attention to the condition of factory operatives. In 1834 he was appointed a Sub-Inspector of Factories, and in 1858 was made one of the Chief Inspectors. **Tchernickesky**, on February 13, aged less than 40, a Russian writer who had translated Mill's "Political Economy," and was the author of a Nihilist novel. In 1864 he was sentenced to twelve years in the mines, and afterwards to a period of three years, and was ultimately sent to a small town in Eastern Siberia. On February 15, **Franz Hellwegel**, a German painter associated with Cornelius in much of his work at Munich, and employed in the decoration of the cathedrals of Speyer and Strasburg. On February 16, at Berlin, **Dr. Paul Mendelssohn-Bartholdy**, aged 39 years, third son of the musician. He was an accomplished chemist, and the member of a firm which carried on an extensive trade in dyes, &c. with China and Japan. **Glinka**, Russian poet, at St. Petersburg, on February 23. On February 21, **General Philip Spencer**, aged 81; although an officer of the Guards over more than half a century, he had never seen any war service. On February 22, **Lieut.-General T. E. Lacy**, for many years Major and Director of Studies at the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, and subsequently in command at the Staff College. On February 26, at St. Petersburg, **Ismail Bresnewski**, Dean of the Faculty of Historical and Philological Sciences at the University of St. Petersburg; a distinguished exponent of Slav archæology and philology. On February 28, at Edinburgh, **Charles Lees, R.S.A.**, in his 80th year, a well-known Scotch portrait and landscape painter, and treasurer of the Royal Scottish Academy. On February 30, aged 76, **Constantine Hansen**, Danish historical and *genre* painter.

MARCH.

Sir John Benjamin Macneill, LL.D., F.R.S., died on March 2, at his residence in Cromwell Road, South Kensington, at the age of 87. The son of the late Captain Torquil P. Macneill, of Mount Pleasant, Dundalk, he was born in the year 1793. The deceased was well known in the engineering world, and was for many years Professor of Civil Engineering at Trinity College, Dublin. He constructed the railway from Dublin to Drogheda, on the opening of which, in May 1844, he received the honour of knighthood from Earl De Grey, then Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. Sir John Macneill was the author of "Tables for Facilitating the Calculation of Earthworks in Railway Cuttings, &c."

The Hon. Charles Meredith died rather suddenly at his residence, Launceston, Tasmania, on March 2. Mr. Meredith, who was 68 years of age, emigrated to Tasmania with his father's family in the year 1820, when the colony was known by the now discarded name of Van Diemen's Land. He was

an active and far-seeing politician, a strenuous advocate of free trade, and a warm supporter of the rights and interests of the people. Mr. Meredith, who was three times Colonial Treasurer, and once Minister of Lands and Works, has latterly been compelled by failing health to retire from active politics, but he will leave behind him a name as one of the most upright and trusted among Australasian statesmen. His widow is well known as an accomplished authoress and an artist of considerable acquirements.

Marchese Pietro Selvatico Estense, a member of an ancient Paduan patrician family, and one of the best known art historians in Italy. Following the bent of a strong inclination, he studied painting under Demin, and became a practical artist. He taught æsthetics and the history of art in the Academy Delle Belle Arti, at Venice, and in 1850 was made director of that institution, to which he rendered great services. Among his best known works are the pamphlet (1836) on the decayed fres-

coes of Giotto in the church of the Annunziata dell' Arena at Padua; the splendidly-illustrated "Architecture and Sculpture" (Milan, 1847); the "History of the Art of Drawing" (Venice, 1852); and a great work on the history of Architecture, which has not been finished. He was well acquainted with the history and condition of art in other countries, and is also favourably known as the author of some poems. He died at Padua on March 2, in his 77th year.

Sir Thomas Bernard Birch died on March 2, at his residence, The Hazles, Prescott, Lancashire, aged 88. The elder but only surviving son of the late Sir Joseph Birch, of the Hazles, by his marriage with Elizabeth Mary, third daughter of Mr. Benjamin Heywood, of Liverpool, he was born in the year 1791, and succeeded as second baronet on the death of his father in 1833. He was educated at Rugby and graduated at Jesus College, Cambridge, in 1813, and was called to the Bar in 1817, but does not appear to have followed the active duties of the legal profession. He held the post of private secretary to Lord Melbourne when his lordship was Chief Secretary for Ireland, and he sat as one of the members for Liverpool in the Liberal interest from 1847 to 1852.

General Alfred Huyshe, C.B., died on March 3, in his 69th year. A fellow-cadet at Addiscombe with Lord Napier of Magdala, Huyshe became a subaltern of Bengal gunners just one year after Robert Napier entered the Engineers, and, like him, passed the first portion of his service without seeing a shot fired. But in 1842 disturbances with Scindia broke out, and Captain Huyshe earned a bronze star for his services in the Gwalior campaign. In 1848-49 he took part in the second Sikh War, and was in command of a battery at the action of Sadoolapore, the heavy fight at Chilianwallah, and the crowning victory of Goojerat. For his distinguished conduct in this campaign he received a brevet majority and the Punjab medal with two clasps. Subsequently, on the Peshawur frontier, Major Huyshe was engaged in more than one of the minor expeditions which took place immediately after the annexation of the trans-Indus territory; but in the suppression of the Mutiny Colonel Huyshe took no active part. He was Inspector-General of Artillery in Bengal for some years, and

on attaining the rank of a general officer retired to England.

Dr. Karl Sladkowsky, the leader and most active spirit of the Young Czech party, died at Prague on March 4, after a long illness, at the age of 57. In the year 1849 he was sentenced to death on account of his participation in the insurrection at Prague; but this punishment was commuted to 20 years' imprisonment, and he actually spent seven years in confinement in the fortress of Olmütz. He was pardoned in 1857, and thenceforward took a most active part in the public affairs of his native country, always representing the most decided and energetic national Czech views, but tempered by the most advanced and enlightened opinions on general politics.

Adolphe Lemoine, better known by his assumed name of Montigny, for many years director of the Gymnase Theatre in Paris, died at Passy, after a long illness, on March 6, at the age of 68. It is thirty-six years since he entered on the managerial office, and during his administration he certainly rendered great services to modern French dramatic literature. Among his early contributors he had Balzac and Georges Sand, and he introduced to the public the first essays of the younger Dumas, Augier, and Sardou in dramatic authorship. Montigny, it may be remembered, was the husband of the talented and very popular actress Rose Chéri, who died before him. The latter years of his administration were not so prosperous as their predecessors, and the Gymnase passed some time ago under the direction of M. Koning.

Sir James Milne Wilson, K.C.M.G., who died at Hobart Town on March 9, was at one time Premier of Tasmania, and afterwards President of the Legislative Council. He died on his 68th birthday. The *Melbourne Argus* says of him:—"He was, perhaps, next to the late William Robertson, the most popular man in Hobart Town, or perhaps Tasmania. His intercourse with friends and opponents (he had no enemies) in public life was uniformly characterised by geniality, courtesy, conciliation, and consideration for the feelings of others. Sir James Wilson, though descended from a respectable county family in Scotland, was in effect a self-made man. He had not enjoyed the advantage of much scholastic training, having left home when little

more than a boy; but his knowledge on almost every subject was extensive, and it was entirely the result of his voluntary reading and study."

Admiral Philip Westphal, who died on February 16, at Ryde, in the Isle of Wight, at the advanced age of 98 years, was the oldest commissioned officer in her Majesty's Navy. The deceased was a son of the late Mr. George Westphal (a gentleman of Hanoverian descent, from the Counts von Westphal), by his marriage with the daughter of Mr. McGrigor, and widow of Captain Bachop, R.N.; he was also brother of the late Admiral Sir George Augustus Westphal, signal midshipman to Lord Nelson at the battle of Trafalgar, and was born in the year 1782. He entered the Navy in 1794 (under the patronage of the Duke of Kent) as a first-class volunteer on board "L'Oiseau," and after serving for about twelve months on that frigate on the coast of North America and in the West Indies, joined in succession the "Albatross" and the "Shannon," on the home station. He soon afterwards joined the "Asia," under the command of Captain Murray, and was again employed in North America until the end of 1800. He then became master's mate on board the "Blanche," and in that ship took part in the action off Copenhagen on April 2, 1801. Three days after that event he was promoted to a lieutenancy and transferred to the "Defiance," flagship of Sir Thomas Graves. His next appointment was to the "Amazon," in which vessel he saw some active service in the Mediterranean. He shortly afterwards accompanied Lord Nelson to the West Indies and back in search of the combined fleets of France and Spain. In 1806 Lieutenant Westphal took part in a long running fight which ended in the capture of two of the enemy's vessels. He was subsequently employed on the coast of France and on the north coast of Spain. In 1812 he was appointed first lieutenant on board the "Junon," on the North American station, where he saw much service and contributed to the capture of several vessels. In January 1815 he was transferred to the "Albion," bearing the flag of Sir George Cockburn, and shortly afterwards, on his return to England, he was promoted to the rank of commander. His last appointments were to the "Warspite" and "Kent." He was advanced to a captaincy in 1830, and in 1847 admitted to the out-pension of Greenwich Hospital. He attained flag rank in 1855,

and became an admiral on the retired list in 1866.

Lieutenant-General Rodolph de Salis, C.B., Colonel of the 8th Hussars, died on March 13, at his residence in Ashley Place, Westminster, in the 69th year of his age. Was the eldest son of the late Jerome, Count de Salis, by his marriage with Henrietta, daughter of the Right Rev. William Foster, Bishop of Kilmore, and niece of the Right Hon. John Foster, Lord Oriel, last Speaker of the Irish House of Commons. He was born in May 1811, and entered the army in 1830. He became lieutenant in 1833, was promoted to a captaincy in 1838, major in 1847, and lieutenant-colonel in 1854. He served with the 8th Hussars in Turkey and the Crimea from May 1854 till the declaration of peace in 1856, including the battles of Alma, Balaklava, Inkerman, and Tchernaya, and the affairs of Bulganak and M'Kenzie's Farm. He commanded the regiment during the last part of the war, including the battle of the Tchernaya and the fall of Sebastopol. Colonel de Salis commanded the cavalry at the expedition and capture of Kertch; and he also served in the command of the 8th Hussars in Rajpootana and Central India in 1857-59, and was present at the siege and capture of Kotah, the re-occupation of Chundaree, the battle of Kotahkesera, the capture of Gwalior and Powree, the battle of Sindwhao, and also the actions of Koorwye, Koon-drye, and Boordah. He became major-general in 1868, colonel of the 8th Hussars in 1875, and lieutenant-general in 1877. For his military services he received the thanks of the Governor-General of India, and was nominated a Companion of the Order of the Bath (military division) in 1861. He married, in 1875, Augusta, widow of General Derville, of the Indian Army.

Mr. John Hales Calcraft, of Rempstone Hall, Dorset, formerly M.P. for Wareham, died on March 13, at his residence near that town. The deceased gentleman, who was in his 84th year, was the elder son of the late Right Hon. John Calcraft, of Rempstone (M.P. successively for Rochester, Wareham, and Dorset, and sometime Clerk of the Ordnance and Paymaster of the Forces), by his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of the late Sir Thomas P. Hales, and was born in the year 1796. He was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant for Dorset, and served as high sheriff of that county in 1867. He sat in the

House of Commons as the representative of Wareham in the Conservative interest from 1820 to 1826, and again from 1832 to 1841, when he was defeated. In 1857 he was returned for the same constituency as a "Moderate Liberal," but retired at the dissolution in 1859.

The Rev. Ralph Stott, who was born in Yorkshire in 1801, died in Natal on March 13. He entered the ranks of the Wesleyan ministry as long ago as 1828, and was shortly afterwards sent as a missionary to Ceylon, and was soon able to preach in Tamil. In 1862 he began mission work among the Coolies in Natal, and, though above sixty years old, learned Hindustani and preached in that tongue. He knew, more or less, fifteen languages.

Mr. Thomas Bell, of The Wakes, Selborne, Hampshire, a former secretary of the Royal Society and president of the Linnean Society, died on March 13, at the age of 87. Mr. Bell had a large practice as a dentist, and attained a very high place in the scientific world. He was for a long period Professor of Zoology in King's College, and his histories of "British Quadrupeds" and of "British Reptiles," though published more than forty years ago, are still much esteemed. When he was over eighty-four years old he brought out his edition of Gilbert White's "Natural History of Selborne." Mr. Bell had been corresponding member of several foreign scientific societies. About eighteen years ago he gave up practice and retired to The Wakes, at Selborne, Gilbert White's house, which he purchased from the great-nieces of the naturalist. Here he collected every memorial he could find of White, and the house and grounds were ever open to the admirers of "The Selborne."

Henry O'Neil, A.R.A., a painter in former years of some reputation, died in London on March 13. He was not only a painter, but a musician, and it may be doubted whether he best loved his palette or his fiddle; but during the last fifteen years of his life the best of his thoughts were given to his pen. Mr. O'Neil was born at St. Petersburg in 1817. He entered the Academy in 1833 and was a pupil there with Elmore, with whom he became so closely connected that in 1840 they travelled together in Italy. On his return home he rose quickly into repute. Among the pictures by which he is known may be named "By the Rivers of Babylon,"

"Catharine of Aragon," "Ahasuerus and the Scribes." Then in 1857-58 followed the two by which his name is best known, the "Eastward Ho" of 1857 and the "Home Again," his most popular and happiest works. After that came "The Wreck of the Royal Charter"—the best picture that he ever painted—and "The Death of Raffaele." Portraits and landscape-painting latterly occupied him. Mr. O'Neil was, amongst other writings, the author of "Modern Art in England and France," published in 1869, and "The Age of Stucco; a Satire in Three Cantos," published in 1871.

Edward Girardet, a Swiss painter of some note, died on March 14, in the house of his brother Paul, an engraver, at Versailles. Edward was born at Neuchâtel, and belonged to a family which has been long connected with art. A Girardet was the illustrator of the first popular Bible published in Switzerland, and his father acquired considerable celebrity as the engraver of Raphael's "Transfiguration," a work which has now become very rare, and is found only in some public galleries and the collections of a few amateurs. Edward's first master was his brother Karl; his first studio the Bernese Oberland, where the two lived and wrought together winter and summer for several years in a sequestered village of that romantic district, and produced many charming landscapes and scenes of mountain life. On one occasion, when Brienz was threatened with destruction by a flood, Edward displayed great courage and presence of mind, and was mainly instrumental in averting the threatened disaster—a service for which he received the thanks and the freedom of the commune. Among the paintings that he executed at this time, all well known in Switzerland, are "A Sale by Auction in a Village," "A dying Peasant Blessing his Family," "A Young Mother dying in the Snows of the Great St. Bernard," "The Doctor's Visit," and many others. These works won Girardet great renown, and their possession was competed for by all the galleries of the Confederation and by many private collectors; but in the midst of his triumphs he conceived a sudden dislike for his art, and after a year of idleness exchanged the brush for the graving tool. He was as successful in his new vocation as he had been in his old one; his engraving of the "Divicon" of Gleyre is regarded as the gem of the Musée of Lausanne,

and his reproduction of the "Banquet des Girondins," and the four plates of Paul Delaroche's "Passion," are masterpieces of art. Girardet was no less admired and respected in France than in the land of his birth, and his merits as an artist were recognised by the bestowal on him of the Cross of the Legion of Honour.

Mr. Samuel Edward Bolden died on March 22, at Derby. He was educated as a solicitor, and, as a young man, having been brought in contact with the elder Stephenson, Locke, Booth of Liverpool, and other pioneers of railways, became so convinced of the important part that railways would play in the future that he took a very active part in their promotion. In concert with John Swift the solicitor, Thomas Brassey the contractor, and Joseph Locke the engineer, he was prominent in carrying out the Lancaster and Carlisle Railway, which was opened throughout in the winter of 1846. It now forms part of the London and North-Western Railway, and yields to the original shareholders nearly 12 per cent. To many Mr. Bolden was better known as a most successful breeder of shorthorn cattle. The son of Mr. John Bolden, of Hyning, North Lancashire, a well-known breeder, he early became convinced of the value of pedigree, and, pinning his faith on the Duchess blood, began to collect a herd in 1845. On

the death of his father he amalgamated both herds at Springfield Hall, Lancaster, where he was the first breeder to realise four figures for a single animal. In 1862, Mr. Bolden, through failing health, sold his herd; but up to his death he continued to take great interest in shorthorns, and was regarded as one of the soundest of judges. Mr. Bolden was for many years an active magistrate of North Lancashire.

Mr. Charles Winchester, the oldest lawyer in Scotland, and probably in the United Kingdom, he was born at Echt, in Aberdeenshire, on February 22, 1781, and, dying on March 27, 1880, had just entered his 100th year. He was admitted to the Bar of Aberdeen as an advocate on March 11, 1807, and for many years practised his profession in that city with general acceptance. He was noted as a classical scholar, and published a translation from the original manuscript of the "Memoirs of the Chevalier de Johnstone." As a citizen of Aberdeen, intimately associated with its progress and prosperity during the present century, he was well known; and while able he took a quiet but effective interest in many of its institutions. Till within a very few days of his death Mr. Winchester had the perfect use of his intellectual faculties, and his memory was as perfect in connection with current events as with those of the last century.

The following names must also be added to the obituary of the month:—On March 4, at Vailungen, Wurtemberg, aged 57, **August Crazs**, one time pastor of Neubroum, and author of a romance once famous, "Eritis sicut Deus." **Tekla Levinia Andrietta Knös**, the Swedish poetess, at Wexiö on March 10, after a long interval of hopeless insanity. Tekla Knös gained the gold medal of the Swedish Academy for her poem of "Ragnar Lodbrok," in 1851. In 1852 she published "Elfvornas Qvällar," and in 1853 two volumes of poems. In 1855 she lost her mother, and came into closer intimacy with various literary persons, and particularly with Fredrika Bremer. About thirteen years ago her mind gave way. On March 12, at Brighton, aged 80, **Mary Francis Wilberforce**, widow of William Wilberforce, of Markington Hall, Yorkshire, son of the great philanthropist. On March 14, at Lowndes Square, London, **Lady Couper**, aged 88, widow of Sir George Couper, C.B., K.H., controller and equerry to the late Duchess of Kent. On March 15, at Bondgate, near Appleby, aged 90, **Rev. Thomas Bellar**, probably the oldest beneficed clergyman in the United Kingdom. He graduated at Queen's College, Oxford, in 1813, and was ordained by Dr. Goodenough, Bishop of Carlisle, and held the living of Bondgate more than fifty-eight years. On March 16, **Richard Donoughmore Lovett, Esq.**, thirtieth representative of the Lovett family in an unbroken male line, authentically deduced through Sir Robert Lovett, of Liscombe, High Sheriff of Bucks, 1608, from Gulielmus de Louvet, Master of the Wolf Hounds, 1067. "Rex cumq. constituit magistrum luporum canum per totam Angliam." On March 18, at St. Vincent, West Indies, **George Dundas the Younger, C.M.G.**, Lieutenant-Governor of the Windward Islands; he had been member for Linlithgowshire from 1847 to 1859. On March 18, aged 70, **Monsignor Aliberti**, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Syra, in the Archipelago. He was one of the persistent opponents of the doctrine of Papal Infallibility at the Vatican Council, openly voting against the decree with an emphatic *Non placeo*.

which was heard all over the Council Hall. He had been Bishop of Syra thirty-seven years. On March 19, at Moscow, aged 45, **Wieniawski**, a Polish violinist of considerable eminence. He was a pupil of Massart of Paris, and at one time was professor at the Conservatoire of Brussels. On March 24, **Dr. Frensdorff**, one of the greatest Hebrew scholars of this century, died at Hanover at a very advanced age. He was especially distinguished for his intimate acquaintance with Massoretic literature. His great work, the "Massora Magna," led to his selection by the University of Göttingen for a professorship. On March 27, at Folkestone, **Viscountess Dungannon**, widow of Arthur Hill-Trevor, Viscount Dungannon, on whose death in 1862 the title became extinct. On March 29, at West Brighton, aged 72, **John Gilmour**, for many years Deputy-Judge of the Birkenhead County Court. He was born at Glasgow, and began life as a S.S.C. in Edinburgh. In 1849 he was called to the English Bar, and joined the Northern Circuit. He was the intimate of Lords Brougham and Campbell and many other distinguished lawyers and men of letters of the day. His success and discernment as a judge were proved by the fact that throughout his career no appeal against any of his judgments was sustained. He was a constant contributor in the press on legal subjects. On March 30, **Professor Konstantin Hansen**, one of the veterans of the Danish school of historical and *genre* painters, died at Copenhagen at the age of 76. He was born in Rome in 1804, his father, Hans Hansen, living there as a portrait painter at that time. Konstantin at first studied architecture under Professor Hesch, but soon evinced a decided inclination for painting. He obtained two silver medals from the Academy, and then resided in Rome from 1835 to 1844, where he occupied a prominent position in the group of artists who gathered round Thorwaldsen.

APRIL.

Felicitas von Vestvali, a rather remarkable person, and well known all over Germany as an artist, died on April 3, at Warsaw, in her 50th year. She was the daughter of a minor official at Stettin. Possessing a singularly strong bass voice as well as a stern cast of features, she resolved to devote herself to the representation of male characters, and for fully twenty years she had a considerable reputation throughout Germany as a personator of Hamlet, Othello, and others of Shakespeare's heroes. Her real name was Westphal, but she was known only by that which she assumed. Some years since she retired from the stage, and went to live at Potsdam, where she had acquired some property.

Mr. Henry Pownall, for a quarter of a century Chairman of the Middlesex Bench of Magistrates, died on April 8, aged 87. He was early connected with the religious and philanthropic movements of the first half of the present century as a member of the committees of the Bible Society, the Church Missionary Society, the Mendicity Society, and the Anti-Slavery Society. He was the mover of the resolution passed at a public meeting in Freemason's Hall in July 1829, under the presidency of William Wilberforce, demanding that a

day "should be fixed after which all children born of slaves in the British dominions should be free. He was also early an active assistant of the late Peter Hervé in establishing the National Benevolent Institution; and, in conjunction with the late Sir Thomas Baring and Sir Robert Harry Inglis, he originated the society for the erection of Exeter Hall. He gave an energetic and liberal support towards the erection of churches and schools throughout South-west Middlesex, especially at Hounslow, Twickenham, and Turnham Green. In politics he was a staunch supporter of Conservative principles. In 1834 he stood in the Conservative interest for Finsbury, and was returned second on the poll, which was headed by the late Thomas S. Duncombe. In 1837 he stood for Middlesex in conjunction with Captain Wood. On this occasion the late Joseph Hume was thrown out, and Mr. Pownall was also unsuccessful. He did not again come forward for Parliament; but he rendered long and valuable services as a county magistrate, which were recognised by his brother justices placing his full-length portrait in the Sessions-house. He made the arrangements by which the attempt to rescue the Fenian prisoners, Burke and Casey, from the House of Detention were defeated. For this he received the thanks both of

the Home Office and of the Court of Quarter Sessions; and this Court again marked their regard for him on his retirement from the chairmanship in 1870, after re-election for twenty-six years, by the presentation of a service of plate. At the time of his death he was the senior treasurer of the Corporation of the Sons of the Clergy, having been for upwards of forty years one of the governors—an office to which he was appointed mainly through the influence of Bishop Blomfield, and in which he was enabled to render most efficient service in augmenting the annual income available for the relief of the distressed clergy. Mr. Pownall married in 1816 Amelia Sophia, daughter of Mr. William Waterhouse, but was left a widower twenty years ago.

Lord Hampton, who will be better known as Sir John Pakington, the Conservative First Lord of the Admiralty who laid claim to no little share in the reconstruction of the Navy, began life as plain Mr. Russell, and only took the name of Pakington in 1831, when he succeeded to the estates of his maternal uncle, Sir Herbert Pakington of Westwood, in Worcestershire. The family of Pakington is a very ancient one, and reckons on its roll the name of more than one celebrity in English history. The "lusty Pakington" of Queen Elizabeth's time married the widow of a City alderman who was not only celebrated for her wealth and beauty, but was the mother, by her first husband, of Alice Barnham, who became the wife of the great Lord Bacon. Nor is this the only connection of the Pakington family with English literature. Sir Herbert Pakington, the baronet who was contemporary with Addison, is commonly held to have been the original of the immortal Sir Roger de Coverley. The grandfather of this baronet was the Sir John Pakington who espoused so loyally the cause of Charles II., and, though taken prisoner at the battle of Worcester, was so popular with his neighbours of all parties that no witness could be found to bear evidence against him. This baronet married Dorothy, the daughter of Lord Coventry, and the reputed author of "The Whole Duty of Man," a work which once found a place in every household with any pretensions either to literature or devotion. Lord Hampton, in 1834, began his public life, soon after his succession to the family estates, as Chairman of Quarter Sessions in his native county. Three years afterwards he was elected to Parliament as

member for Droitwich, the town near which he resided. For over thirty years Sir John Pakington, who was created a baronet by Sir Robert Peel in 1846, held his seat without a contest, and in 1868 he defeated with little difficulty the Liberal who then for the first time ventured to oppose him. But in 1874 Droitwich was captured with ease by his former opponent, Mr. Corbett. Sir John Pakington was not included in the Ministry formed by Mr. Disraeli in 1874, but his long services to his party were rewarded by his elevation to the peerage under the title of Lord Hampton. In Parliament Sir John Pakington steadily supported Sir Robert Peel until the latter became a convert to free trade, when he joined the ranks of those unyielding and irreconcilable Tories who still adhered to protection. When, in 1852, Lord Derby first became Premier, Sir John Pakington was offered a seat in the Cabinet, and was appointed Colonial Secretary. He was new to office, like so many of his colleagues; but from that time forth he was recognised as one of the leaders of his party, and when it returned to office in 1858 he became First Lord of the Admiralty—a post which he filled with great efficiency at the critical time when the transition from wooden ships to ironclads was just beginning to be made. Sir John Pakington returned to the Admiralty in 1866, but quitted it early in the following year, when he was transferred to the War Office in order to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of General Peel. At his re-election consequent on his acceptance of the latter office, Sir John Pakington made a speech to his constituents in which he revealed some of the dissensions in the Cabinet which had caused his transfer, and used a phrase which became historical and is not unlikely to be remembered as long as he is remembered himself. Three members of the Cabinet had unexpectedly resigned, he told his hearers, and their remaining colleagues determined at very short notice to introduce a measure of reform widely different from that which had been previously agreed upon. The time, in truth, was very short indeed. The Cabinet was only fully assembled at two o'clock; at the half-hour Lord Derby was to address a meeting of the Conservative party. "Literally," said Sir John Pakington to his constituents, "they had not half an hour; they had not more than ten minutes to make up their minds as to what course the Ministry were to adopt." But the Ministry were equal to the task, and it was

successfully accomplished. The Bill, which was thereafter known as the "Ten Minutes Bill," was explained the same evening by Mr. Disraeli in the House of Commons, and it finally became the measure which Lord Derby described in the House of Lords as "a leap in the dark," and to his friends as a scheme for "dishing the Whigs." Sir John Pakington remained Secretary for War until Mr. Disraeli resigned in 1868. He always bore the reputation of a laborious and conscientious official; but his public achievements were confined to a share in the reconstruction of the Navy and the contribution of a striking, though not very fortunate, phrase to the political history of his time. In 1875, Lord Hampton, who had obtained his peerage in the previous year, was appointed to the post of First Civil Service Commissioner—an appointment which has been criticised not too generously by his political adversaries. Lord Hampton, it is true, was 76 at the time; but it can hardly be said, in the face of so many examples to the contrary, that such an age is inconsistent with efficiency in the public service. In 1871 he presided over the Social Science Congress at Leeds, and he was certainly one of the few members of the old Tory party whose liberal views on social and educational questions would have gained him the confidence of that association. He died at his residence in Eaton Square on April 9, after a fortnight's illness, aged 81.

Mr. William Huntley, a pupil of George Stephenson, died on April 10, at the age of 82. In 1823 he entered the employment of Messrs. George Stephenson and Co., of Newcastle, remaining with the firm for ten years. While working with the distinguished engineer he erected the first locomotive engine that drew a passenger train, under Stephenson's personal superintendence, and Huntley had the honour of working it alternately with him on the memorable September 27, 1825—the first day that a train passed over the Stockton and Darlington Railway. Mr. Huntley subsequently removed to Dundee. In the year 1853 he patented a valve regulator, by which a greater amount of work was obtained out of an engine with a diminished quantity of fuel. He afterwards advocated the introduction of a continuous grip brake system, to enable drivers to pull up their engines within the length of their train.

Dr. William Sharpey, F.R.S., the dis-

tinguished physiologist, died on April 11, at his residence in Torrington Square. Seeing that he graduated M.D. Edinburgh, so long ago as 1823, he must have been about 78 years of age. The deceased gentleman was also LL.D. Edinburgh, and a Fellow of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh; a member of the Senate of the University of London; Emeritus Professor of Anatomy and Physiology in University College, London; he was also a trustee of the Hunterian Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons of England, and a member of several learned and scientific societies at home and abroad. He was a valuable contributor to the advancement of science in the Continental and British Journals and Transactions. Perhaps one of his most important papers was his "Observations and Experiments on Purkyne and Valentin's Paper on the discovery of a continued vibratory motion produced by cilia, as a general phenomenon in reptiles, birds, and mammiferous animals." The catalogue of scientific papers published by the Royal Society of London gives a long list of his contributions to science.

The Right Rev. Thomas Joseph Brown, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Newport and Menevia, died on April 12, at his residence, near Hereford, in the 83rd year of his age. He was born at Bath on May 2, 1798, and was for many years a priest of the Dominican Order. He was consecrated in October 1840 as Vicar Apostolic of the Welsh district, under the title of Bishop of Apollonia *in partibus*. He was transferred to the See of Newport and Menevia on the establishment of the hierarchy under Cardinal Wiseman in September 1850, and in 1854 he received from the late Pope Pius IX. the complimentary title of an Assistant at the Pontifical Throne. His duties will probably devolve on his coadjutor, Bishop Dr. Hedley. With the exception of Dr. Ullathorne, Dr. Brown was the last survivor of the English Bishops appointed at the time of the "Papal Aggression," in 1850, when the land was "carved out into territorial dioceses."

Lieutenant-General J. W. Armstrong, C.B., died suddenly in London on April 12; one of the most valued and experienced members of the Staff. He had not only proved himself a brave and gallant officer in the field, but by a deep study of his profession had placed himself in the foremost rank of

our Generals. Entering the service in 1843, General Armstrong ran rapidly through the junior ranks of the Army, and before he had completed twelve years' service had attained his lieutenant-colonelcy, which, together with his majority, was bestowed on him for gallantry in the Russian War. Landing in the Crimea in September 1854, Captain Armstrong was nominated Brigade-Major in the Second Division. He was present at the battle of the Alma, when his conduct was brought prominently to the notice of the Commander-in-Chief by Lord Raglan at Balaclava and at Inkermann, where his horse was killed under him. On June 7, 1855, he commanded one of the columns of attack on the Quarries, and in this sharp affair he was twice severely wounded. For these services Colonel Armstrong, besides receiving two steps in rank, gained our own war medal with four clasps for Alma, Balaclava, Inkermann, and Sebastopol, the Turkish medal, the Legion of Honour, fourth class of the Medjidieh, and the Companionship of the Bath. Shortly after his return to England, Colonel Armstrong was appointed to the command of a dépôt battalion at Canterbury, and was subsequently transferred to the Horse Guards as an Assistant Adjutant-General. In 1876, when Sir Garnet Wolseley was nominated a member of the Indian Council, General Armstrong was selected to succeed him as Inspector-General of Reserve Forces. In this responsible post he had done not a little to draw closer the bonds which unite the auxiliary forces with the line; and his long experience, both as a regimental and staff officer, has been invaluable to the Commander-in-Chief and the War Office authorities, as well in his own department as in the broader question of Army reorganisation. The Volunteers will lose in him a kind adviser and a steadfast friend, and the service will mourn the loss of one whose highest ambition was to be considered "a soldier."

John Skirrow Wright, the newly-elected member for Nottingham, and chairman of the Birmingham Liberal Association, died on April 15 at Birmingham. His death occurred between three and four o'clock in the afternoon, while he was attending in his capacity of vice-chairman a meeting of the School of Art Committee in one of the rooms of the new Council House. Mr. Wright, who had been to all appearance in excellent health and spirits since his return from Nottingham, was talking

and laughing freely with the other members of the committee, when his laughter was suddenly interrupted by heavy stertorous breathing; his head drooped, and, with a convulsive tremor of the body, he fell forward upon the table. Mr. Thackray Bunce, who was sitting near him, caught him in his arms and replaced him in his chair. Medical assistance was promptly forthcoming, and every effort was made, but without avail, and within five or six minutes of the seizure life was extinct. The cause of death is believed to have been apoplexy, but neither the deceased nor his friends were aware that he had any predisposition to that disease. Mr. Wright, who was in his 58th year, had been long and intimately connected with the public work of the town, and had especially signalised himself in all movements for bettering the condition of the working classes. He had been chairman of the local Liberal Association from the commencement. As the chairman of the Birmingham School Board he had rendered valuable aid in promoting the educational work of the town; and, though he could not conscientiously acquiesce in the doctrine of his Liberal colleagues that Bible reading should be excluded from the schools, he was a staunch upholder of undenominational teaching. The deceased gentleman was a son of the late Mr. Edward Fawcett Wright, of Hebden Bridge, Yorkshire. Having received a private education, with a view to business, he became a merchant at Birmingham. Mr. Wright married, in 1842, Miss Sarah Tyrer, daughter of Mr. John Tyrer. He was formerly a partner in the firm of Smith and Wright, button manufacturers and tin plate workers, and, as a large employer of labour, he endeared himself to his workpeople by his genial personal qualities, his liberality, and his kindly interest in everything affecting their welfare. He was one of the few Birmingham employers who gave his workpeople an interest in the success of business by an annual distribution of bonuses. A few years since Mr. Wright retired from the manufacturing business in favour of his sons, and devoted himself to mercantile trade affecting more particularly the markets of South America. He had been several times elected chairman of the Birmingham Chamber of Commerce, and represented that body at the opening of the Suez Canal. He was a borough magistrate, a director of Lloyd's Bank, and treasurer of the Baptist Midland Association.

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Edward Vaughan Kenealy.—Little is known of Dr. Kenealy's parentage and early antecedents except that he was a native of the south of Ireland, where he was born about the year 1818, his father having been a merchant at Cork. He received his early education in one of the Jesuit colleges of Ireland, and afterwards entered as a student at Trinity College, Dublin, where he took his Bachelor's degree in 1840, obtaining considerable distinction in classics, and was called to the Irish Bar about the same time. He subsequently proceeded to take his degrees at Trinity College in the Faculty of Laws as LL.B. and D.C.L. In 1847 he was called to the English Bar at Gray's Inn, and joined the Oxford Circuit, practising chiefly at the Shrewsbury and Staffordshire Sessions. The name of Dr. Kenealy was first brought prominently before the public by his defence of the individual known as the "Claimant" in the Tichborne case, which is too fresh in the memories of our readers to need any comment on it here. In 1868 he was made a Queen's Counsel, and in the same year he was chosen a Bencher of his Inn; but of this honour he was deprived by his brother Benchers in 1874, the Lord Chancellor at the same time depriving him of his silk gown under circumstances which at this moment we may pass over in silence. Dr. Kenealy was not unknown as an author; he published sundry works, such as "The Book of God, an Introduction to the Apocalypse," "The Book of Enoch," "A new Pantomime," dedicated to Mr. Disraeli; and a volume of "Poems, Translations," &c., in the ancient and modern languages, was published by him several years ago. Strangely enough, it was dedicated to Lord Chief Justice Cockburn, the Judge whose patience Dr. Kenealy taxed so severely in the Court at Westminster by his defence in the Tichborne case. In February 1875 he was returned as an Independent candidate for Stoke-upon-Trent, polling upwards of 6,000 votes; but in Parliament he must be considered to have somewhat dissatisfied the expectations of his Staffordshire friends, as at the general election of this year he obtained little more than a sixth of that number, and was at the bottom of the poll. Dr. Kenealy was the owner and editor of a weekly paper called the *Englishman*, and the founder of a society known as the Magna Charta Association. His death, on April 16, in Tavistock Square, was the result of an abscess in his foot, which turned to mortification.

The Rev. Alexander Raleigh, D.D., whose death occurred on April 19, was well known throughout England and Scotland as one of the foremost among Nonconformist ministers, and as a preacher of great earnestness and power. He was born in the year 1817, at Castle Douglas, received his ministerial training in the Lancashire Independent College, became pastor of the Congregational Church, Greenock, in 1844, removed to Rotherham in 1850, and in 1855 succeeded the late Rev. Dr. Wardlaw at Glasgow. From thence he removed, in 1859, to London, where he took charge of a newly-formed church at Canonbury. There he gathered a large congregation, and through his means several other churches were built and sustained in the vicinity. In 1875 he became the pastor of Kensington Chapel, on the retirement of the Rev. John Stoughton, D.D. He remained in charge of that congregation until the middle of February, when an illness commenced which terminated fatally. Dr. Raleigh received the degree of D.D. from Glasgow University in 1864. He was chosen chairman of the Congregational Union for the year 1868, and enjoyed all the honours for which Congregational ministers are eligible. He married Miss Gifford, sister of Lord Gifford, one of the Judges of Appeal in the High Court of Edinburgh, and leaves a family of five daughters and one son. Dr. Raleigh was the author of "The Story of Jonah," "The Little Sanctuary," and a volume of sermons entitled "Quiet Resting-Places," which has gone through several editions.

Edward Enfield, who died on April 21, was buried at the Woking Cemetery, his funeral being attended by members of the Council and Senate of University College, London, and the College being closed during the day. Mr. Enfield had been for twenty-three years one of the most active members of the Council of the College and of the Committee of Management. Since 1867 he has been Chairman of the Committee of Management and Treasurer of University College Hospital. Of the Hospital Committee he had been a member for twenty-seven years, and two years ago he was elected by the Professors to the presidency of the Senate. The growing prosperity of the College for many years past has been largely aided by the patient, unremitting care with which Mr. Enfield applied his business tact and knowledge to the management of its affairs, and the steadiness with

which he kept always its highest aims in view. Mr. Enfield was born in 1811, was the third son of the town clerk of Nottingham, and grandson of the Dr. Enfield whose beneficent labours at Norwich were less widely known than his success as the compiler of "Enfield's Speaker." Activity in works of public usefulness has been characteristic of Mr. Enfield's family. The late Treasurer of University College Hospital, after he had withdrawn from business life as one of the Moneyers of the Mint, gave himself wholly to an independent course of usefulness. The great services rendered by him to University College during a quarter of a century will always live among the best traditions of the place. At meetings of the Council or Committee of Management, or Hospital Committee, no man was more regular in attendance, and no man's attendances were more fruitful of good. He was a member also of the Council of University Hall, and President of Manchester New College. He was a trustee of Dr. Williams's Library, and trusted counsellor as to the use of its endowments. He worked personally and steadily for many years, until his death among the poor at the East End of London, as one of the most liberal and thoughtful friends of a domestic mission there established.

Professor Buschmann died on April 22, at Berlin, the oldest keeper of the Royal Library there. Born in 1805 at Magdeburg, Professor Buschmann first studied under Bopp Boeckh and other renowned philologists, and then passed two years as tutor in a German family in Mexico, where he seized the opportunity of investigating the relics of the Aztec tongues. Returning to Berlin, he acted as a kind of private secretary to Alexander von Humboldt, whose "Kosmos," among other things, he indexed—a work which Buschmann modestly declared to be the most important he ever did. He also helped Wilhelm von Humboldt to compose his treatise on "The Kawi Tongue and the Island of Java."

George Grossmith, the well-known public reader and lecturer, died very suddenly on April 24, aged 59. He was presiding at the usual "house dinner" of the Savage Club, Adelphi Terrace, and had just recited an amusing scene, called "An Incident in the Life of the late Serjeant Talfourd," when he was seized with apoplexy.

Colonel Francis Vernon Harcourt, of Buxted Park, Sussex, died on April 24, at his seat near Uckfield. The deceased, who was in his 80th year, was the tenth son of the late Hon. and Most Rev. Edward Vernon Harcourt, D.D., sometime Archbishop of York, by his marriage with Lady Anne Leveson Gower, third daughter of Granville, first Marquis of Stafford, and was born in the year 1801. He was educated at the Military College at Sandhurst, and entered the army in 1816. He eventually became a colonel, but many years ago retired from the service. He was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant for Hampshire and Sussex, and also a deputy-lieutenant for the Isle of Wight, and he served as high sheriff of Sussex in 1867. He represented the Isle of Wight in Parliament in the Conservative interest from 1852 down to 1857, when he retired. Colonel Harcourt married, in 1837, Lady Katharine Julia Jenkinson, eldest daughter and coheir of Charles, third and last Earl of Liverpool, but was left a widower without issue in December 1877.

The Rev. George Christopher Hodgkinson, M.A., of Trinity College, Cambridge, Rector of Screveton, Notts, died on April 25, aged 64. He was 14th Wrangler and 2nd-class Classical Tripos, 1837, and had been successively Principal of the Royal Agricultural College, Cirencester; secretary of the National Society; Principal of the Diocesan Training College, York; and for many years head-master of Louth School, Lincolnshire. He was author of ordination sermons, tracts on the rubric and doctrine of the Church, also pamphlets on the Civil Service of India, and of "Astronomical Observations on the Summit of Mont Blanc," &c. Towards the latter he received grants from the Royal Society, for the construction of his own scientific instruments and the modification of others. He had lately been in correspondence with the Astronomer Royal as to the most effective mode of registering the sunshine. Mr. Hodgkinson married a granddaughter of the late Sir James Ross.

Mr. Briggs Andrews, Q.C., the senior Bencher of the Hon. Society of the Middle Temple, and one of its oldest members, died on April 28, at his residence, Heavitree House, near Exeter. Mr. Andrews was called to the Bar by the above Society in November 1819, in the reign of George III., and joined

the Norfolk Circuit. He was created a King's Counsel in 1837, and was elected Treasurer of his Inn in 1846. He was the last Commissioner of Bankrupts for the Exeter district, and at the time of his death was 85 years of age.

Heinrich Hoyer, a member of the famous corps of "Black Brunswickers," died on April 30, on his farm in Madison county, Illinois. He had made all the campaigns of 1813, 1814, and 1815 against Napoleon; took part in the combat at Quatre Bras on June 16, 1815, and was close to the Duke Frederick William of Brunswick when he fell. In 1844 he emigrated with his family to Illinois, where he settled and prospered as a farmer. A large circle of descendants survive him. He was nearly 88 years of age when he died.

The Rev. R. H. G. More, of London and Shipton, near Wenlock, Shropshire, who died on April 29, at the age of 82, had served for fifty-four years the donative living of Shipton, the smallest living in England. His family represented Shropshire in Cromwell's Parliament, while his maternal ancestors, the Myttons, were strong Royalists. His grandfather, the friend and pupil of Linnæus, is known as the introducer of the larch and various plants into England, planting the first larch at Linley the day before larch were planted at Dunkeld, the Duke of Athole and Robert More, M.P., being members of the Council of the Royal Society together.

General Vinoy, whose removal from the Chancellorship of the Legion of Honour a few weeks previously attracted much notice, died on April 29, at the age of 80. He at first studied for the priesthood, but in 1823 entered the army, did good service in Algeria, and distinguished himself at Alma and the capture of the Malakoff, as also in Lombardy. He won partial

successes during the siege of Paris, and, by his strenuous remonstrances, saved the city from a German march to the Hôtel des Invalides, which might have deluged it in blood. He conducted the operations south of the Seine against the Commune, and M. Thiers rewarded him for all these services with the Presidency of the Legion of Honour. By his political opponents, however, he was accused of having used his influence and power for personal ends, and so much pressure was brought to bear on General Farre, the Minister of War, and documents of so compromising a nature were said to have been found, that General Vinoy was called upon to resign the post which had been conferred upon him in recognition of honourable services.

Selina Saunders, Comtesse de Buor de Villeneuve, died on April 29, at Paris. Born in England, her father being a descendant of the Talbots and her mother an Irish lady, her marriage introduced her into the oldest French families. She was soon left a widow without children, and devoted herself to works of charity. In 1843 she did the honours at Alton Towers on the visit of the Comte de Chambord to the Earl of Shrewsbury, and was ever a staunch Legitimist and ardent Catholic.

Karl Heinrich Hermann, the well-known historical painter, and a member of the Royal Academies of Arts of Berlin, Munich, and Dresden, died on April 30, at Berlin, aged 78. He was a native of Dresden and a pupil of the Academy there, subsequently moving to the Academy at Düsseldorf, under Cornelius. He was joined with Götzenberger and Förster in painting the frescoes of the Aula at Bonn. Later on he accompanied Cornelius to Munich, where he executed in fresco several of the Master's cartoons in the Glyptothek and the Ludwigskirche.

On April 1, at Cannes, **Henri Serment**, aged 55; a journalist and member of the Geneva Bar, and for a short time editor of the *Journal de Genève*, and the author of several books and pamphlets. On April 2, at Winnagora, Posen, **Bronislaus von Dombrowski**, aged 64, son of the celebrated commander of Napoleon's Polish Legion, and himself mixed up with all the Polish movements of the past five-and-thirty years. On April 4, at Brampton Bryan, **General George Staunton, C.B.**, Colonel of the 92nd Gordon Highlanders; a distinguished officer in the Sutlej and Crimean campaigns. On April 6, at Paris, aged 77, **Théodore Gudin**, a painter of sea pieces. His first exhibited work was in the Salon of 1822. On April 9, at Hammersmith, **Rev. John Brande Morris**, aged 67, sometime Fellow and Tutor at Balliol College, Oxford; resigning at the same time with Dr. Newman, and submitting himself to the Church of Rome. On April 13, at Brunswick, aged 37, **Herr Bracke**, a prominent leader of the Social Democratic party in Germany, and at one time a member of the Reichsrath. He was by trade a bookseller. On

April 14, at New York, aged 67, **Dr. Samuel Osgood**. After graduating at Harvard University he became a Unitarian minister, and for thirty years was an acknowledged leader of that body. Subsequently he attached himself to the Protestant Episcopal Church, and was alike distinguished as a preacher, author, and journalist. On April 17, at Aston Hall, Shropshire, aged 73, **John Robert Kenyon, Q.C.**, of Pradoc, Vinerian Professor of Common Law in the University of Oxford; educated at Charterhouse and Christ Church, Oxford, Fellow of All Souls', Benchet, and for many years Treasurer, of the Middle Temple; recorder of Oswestry, and Chairman of the Shropshire Quarter Sessions.

MAY.

Hon. George Brown, a prominent member of the Canadian Parliament before Confederation and of the Dominion Parliament after it, on his retirement from office being made a Senator and a member of the Privy Council, died on May 8, in his 62nd year. In politics he had always been a strong Liberal, and taken a leading part in the negotiations which ended in the Confederation of the provinces. For a short time he was Prime Minister of the Two Canadas; and in 1874 attempted to arrange a reciprocity treaty with the United States. At the time of his death he was chief proprietor of the *Toronto Globe*. About the middle of March, a workman who thought himself aggrieved shot him with a pistol in the leg, and the wound caused his death. Mr. Brown was a native of Edinburgh.

Dr. Christian August Friedrich Peters, the director of the Astronomical Observatory, died at Kiel on May 8. Dr. Peters was well known as one of the foremost astronomers of our time. Born at Hamburg in 1806, he devoted himself to the study of mathematics and astronomy. He worked in the observatory at Altona under Schumacher, and at Königsberg under Bessel. In 1839 he became Observer at Pulkova. Twelve years later he succeeded Bessel in the Königsberg Observatory and also as Professor of Astronomy; three years afterwards he was appointed to his old master's place at Altona, and continued his valuable periodical, the *Astronomische Nachrichten*, which was the central organ for astronomical science in Germany. In 1872 the observatory was transferred from Altona to Kiel, and the director migrated with it, becoming also Professor of Astronomy in the University. Besides continuing to edit the *Nachrichten*, he also published various contributions to mathematical and astronomical science.

M. Gustave Flaubert, the novelist, died on May 9, at his native city of Rouen, at the age of 58. He had intended starting that day for Paris, as a rest from a work entitled "*Bouvard et Péluchet*," on which he was engaged. After distinguishing himself at school, in classical studies, he turned his attention to his father's profession—that of surgeon—but soon deserted it for literature. His first attempts were as a poet, taking Hugo and Byron for his models; but he after a time renounced romanticism for realism, and at length he won notoriety in 1856 by a Government prosecution for immorality against his "*Madame Bovary*." He was acquitted, and the novel, the fruit of eight years' labour, had a great run. Six years later he published "*Salammbô*," a picture of life in old Carthage; in 1869, "*Education Sentimentale*;" and in 1874 the "*Tentation de St. Antoine*." The same year his "*Candidat*" was brought out on the stage, and he has since written some minor works.

Edouard Fournier, a French author and book collector, died in Paris on May 10, just after correcting a proof-sheet. The son of a locksmith at Orleans, he was born on June 19, 1819, but, having acquired the rudiments of a sound education in his native town came to Paris, and without either patrons or friends threw himself into literature, displaying both research and erudition as well as grace and *esprit* in all that he undertook. His first work, published in 1847, was "*La Musique chez le Peuple, ou l'Opéra National*," which was followed by a variety of works of which the subjects were sought in the by-paths of history—as of the old streets of Paris and their traditions. In 1851 he appeared as a writer for the stage; his first piece, "*Christian et Marguerite*," a one-act comedy in verse, being accepted at the Théâtre Français; and

his last a drama called "Gutenberg," in five acts, which was performed at the Odéon. The works by which he will be best known, however, are those in which he was able to display the vast stores of learning and reading he had accumulated—"L'esprit des autres" (1857), and "L'esprit dans l'histoire" (1856)—which not only brought to light many forgotten incidents and sayings, but showed the very meagre evidence on which many commonly received historical incidents were based.

Sir John Goss, many years organist of St. Paul's Cathedral, died on May 10, at his residence at Brixton Rise. He was a son of the late Mr. Joseph Goss, of Fareham, Hampshire, many years organist of that place; was born in the year 1880, and became one of the choristers of the Chapel Royal, St. James's, when about 11 years old. He was a pupil of the late Mr. Thomas Attwood, whom he succeeded as organist of St. Paul's Cathedral in April 1838, having previously been organist at St. Luke's, Chelsea. In 1856, on the death of Mr. William Knyvett, he was appointed composer to Her Majesty's Chapels Royal. Mr. Goss received the honour of knighthood in consequence of having composed the "Te Deum" and the anthem performed at the Thanksgiving Service held in St. Paul's Cathedral, in February 1872, in commemoration of the recovery of the Prince of Wales from his dangerous illness. Sir John Goss resigned the post of organist of St. Paul's shortly afterwards. Besides the "Te Deum" and anthem above mentioned, Sir John Goss was also the author of various orchestral compositions, and likewise numerous glees and anthems, among the former being "There is beauty on the mountain," and "O Thou whose beams;" and among the latter, "Praise the Lord, O my soul." Among his later compositions the best known are his "Wilderness" and "O Saviour of the World." Sir John Goss married, in 1821, Lucy Emma, daughter of Mr. William New.

Giuseppe Mazzoni, Grand Master of the Italian Freemasons and Senator of the kingdom, died of bronchitis on May 11, at Prato, near Florence. From his earliest youth he had taken part in the struggles of the Liberal movement; he was one of the most prominent among the Tuscan pioneers of Italian independence. A member of an old and wealthy family of Prato, of which town his father was Syndic under the

dominion of Napoleon I., he was educated for the legal profession, and attained considerable eminence as a juriconsult. In 1848 he held the portfolio of Grace and Justice in the Constitutional Government of Tuscany, and afterwards was Triumvir together with Guerrazzi and Montanelli. Upon the restoration of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, he went, a voluntary exile, first to France and then to Spain, and the remains of his family property, much of which he had sacrificed in the Liberal cause, having been sequestered, he was compelled to support himself by giving lessons in the Italian and classical languages. Returning to Italy in 1859, he was elected a deputy to the Assembly at Florence that voted and decreed the *plébiscite* which united Tuscany under the Constitutional Government of Victor Emmanuel. Declining to accept office or any of the honours offered to him, he retired into private life, until finally, yielding to the insistence of his friends, he entered the Italian Parliament in 1870, and sat for Prato until 1879, when he was raised by King Humbert to the rank of Senator. A Freemason of long standing, he was elected Deputy Grand Master at the Constituent Assembly of Italian Freemasonry, held in 1869. In 1872 he was nominated Grand Master, and was confirmed in that office at the following assemblies held in 1874 and 1879. Mazzoni had passed his 70th year.

James Booth, C.B., who died on May 11, at his residence, 2 Prince's Gardens, Kensington, had retired so long from public life as to be almost forgotten, but he did some good service in his time. Mr. Booth, who was the son of an eminent citizen and merchant of Liverpool, graduated at Cambridge, and was called to the Bar in 1824, practising with some success in Chancery. He was a member of the Royal Commission for inquiring into the municipal corporations of England and Wales in 1833. In 1838 he was applied to by the then Speaker to prepare for the use of the House of Commons what were called "breviates" of the private Bills brought before it, the number and importance of which had shortly before that time greatly increased. The breviate was a help to read the Bills, intended to assist the members of the select committees to which the Bills were referred, and were expected to contain the short substance of the Bills, with remarks upon any points in which they might be supposed to be at variance

with the acknowledged policy and principles of private legislation. At the end of the Session of 1839 he was appointed a permanent officer of the House, with the title of Counsel to the Speaker and Examiner of Recognizances (an office created under the Elections Petitions Act, which had been passed in that Session), Mr. Booth agreeing to relinquish his private practice at the Bar. After his permanent appointment Mr. Booth went on to prepare the breviate as before; but the most important service rendered by him was one not directly contemplated in his appointment, and which was performed chiefly during the recess. This was the preparation of skeleton Bills in an improved form for all the more important classes of Bills. These became familiarly known about the House of Parliament as the "Model Bills," and reference used constantly to be made to them by the select committees when Bills falling within any of the classes came before them. Mr. Booth's great work was the preparation of the Clauses Consolidation Acts, the first and most important of which was passed in 1845, and the others two years later, after the success of the first had been established. Referring to these Acts as having been prepared by Mr. Booth, the Commissioners for the revision of the Statute Laws in 1853, Mr. Bellenden Ker being chairman, in their report, ordered to be printed June 12, 1854, say, "Nothing in modern legislation has been so successful as these Acts." Lord Chancellor Cranworth, in calling the attention of the House of Lords to the improvement which had been effected by these Acts in the private branch of legislation, and suggesting the extension of the same principle to the public branch, said, "Whoever had devised those Acts was a public benefactor." They, in fact, worked a revolution in the private legislation of the Houses of Parliament. So great had been their effect in simplifying the private business of the House of Commons that the Committee on Miscellaneous Expenditure of 1848—of whom Mr. Vernon Smith (afterwards Lord Lyveden) was chairman—came to the conclusion (erroneously, as it ultimately proved) that it was no longer necessary that the House should have the assistance of such an officer as Mr. Booth, and in their report they recommended that the necessity of the office of Counsel to the Speaker should be considered on the occasion of a vacancy at the Table. In 1850 he consented, at a large sacrifice of leisure, to accept

the office of Secretary to the Board of Trade, which place he held till 1865, being then in his 69th year. After Mr. Booth's retirement, he, at the request of Mr. Walpole, then Home Secretary consented to act as one of the Commissioners for inquiry into trade unions. On this Commission he took an active part, and, as appears from the published proceedings of the Commissioners, prepared the draft report which with modifications was adopted by a majority of the Commissioners. Mr. Booth's literary productions were confined to articles in the various law magazines of the period, and to a treatise on religion entitled "The Problem of the World and the Church."

Commander John Bruce, of the Coast-guard, was drowned, on May 13, on the Northumbrian coast, while attempting to cross to Holy Island in a punt. He entered the Navy on July 15, 1852, as naval cadet on board Her Majesty's ship "Mæander," under Captain, afterwards Admiral Sir Charles Talbot, and served in her at the Cape of Good Hope until the breaking out of the Crimean War, when her officers and crew were transferred to Her Majesty's ship "Algiers." The "Algiers" was first ordered to the Baltic with French troops, and in her he was present at the taking of Bomarsund. She was then sent to the Black Sea, and he was present at the fall of Sebastopol, and at the capture of Kertch and Yenikale. He was wounded while on shore shortly after the fall of Sebastopol. He was then appointed to the "Esk," Captain Sir Robert McClure, and served in her in the Pacific and in the Chinese War, till invalided with dysentery in the Canton river. In 1871 he received his Commander's commission, and in 1874 was appointed to her Majesty's ship "Fly." In her he was present at Santander during the Carlist disturbances, and afterwards was ordered to China, when the "Fly" was the first gunboat on the spot during the outbreak at Perak. By taking possession of the forks of the river at Darien Sabatan he saved the Residency and prevented the retreat of the troops, for which he was thanked by Sir William Jervois on the quarter-deck of his ship. He was afterwards present at the capture of Passah Saleh, and subsequently was employed in blockading the north side of the Perak river. He received the approval of the Admiralty and of the Secretary of State for the Colonies for his services during the expedition. On December 8, 1879, he was appointed

Inspecting Commander of the Berwick division of the Coastguard, and was engaged in a tour of inspection at the time of his death. He had the Baltic medal, the Crimean and Turkish medal with Sebastopol clasp, and the China medal.

Cardinal Pie, Bishop of Poitiers, died very suddenly on May 17, at Angoulême, whither he had gone to deliver an address. He was born in 1815, in humble life, his mother being a cook, and was first a priest in the diocese of Chartres, where he attracted the attention of Monseigneur Dupanloup; but a panegyric on Joan of Arc at Orleans earned him a reputation for eloquence. In 1849 he became Bishop of Poitiers, and his impetuous, uncompromising temperament excluded him from any higher preferment from the Empire or the Republic, though the latter did not object, a year ago, to his receiving a Cardinal's hat. The unification of Italy evoked from him repeated protests. He delivered an address upon the defeat of the Pope's Zouaves, wrote an answer to M. de la Guéronnière's semi-official pamphlet, and in a pastoral plainly compared Napoleon to Pilate. The Council of State censured the pastoral, and the Bishop was "sent to Coventry" by the Prefect and other officials. At the Vatican Council he was an ardent advocate of Papal Infallibility. He did not issue a separate protest against the anti-Jesuit decrees, but simply gave his adhesion to that of Cardinal Donnet.

Paul de Musset, the elder brother of the poet Alfred de Musset, died on May 18, in Paris, at the age of 76. He began to write historical novels in 1832, which were sober, elegant works; brought out two plays in 1856 and 1857 with but little success; and in 1876 published a life of his brother, whom he had defended in "Lui et Elle" against Georges Sand's allusion to her rupture with Alfred de Musset in her "Elle et Lui." He translated the eccentric memoirs of Gozzi, and by these and his short stories obtained greater reputation than by any of his other works.

William Hallows Miller, M.D., F.R.S. who for the long period of forty-eight years had been Professor of Mineralogy at Cambridge. The late Professor was born in 1801. He died on May 20, at his residence in Cambridge. He was educated at St. John's College, where he graduated B.A. in 1826, ob-

taining the high distinction of fifth Wrangler. He was in due course elected to a Fellowship, and subsequently filled the office of Tutor of St. John's. In 1832 the Professorship of Mineralogy fell vacant by the resignation of Dr. Whewell, late Master of Trinity College, and Mr. Miller was elected to succeed him. In 1838 the late Professor was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society, and in 1856 was appointed foreign secretary to that society, which onerous post he held for seventeen years. He was an active member of the Cambridge Philosophical Society, and has filled the office of President on more than one occasion. His high scientific attainments were recognised in various ways. In 1870 he was awarded one of the medals of the Royal Society for his researches and writings on mineralogy and crystallography, and also in recognition of his scientific labours in the restoration of the national standard of weight. In 1843 Professor Miller was a member of a Government Commission to superintend the construction of the Parliamentary standards of length and weight. He undertook the standard of weight. This Commission was rendered necessary, the original standards having been destroyed by the fire in the Houses of Parliament. The work was not completed until 1854. In 1867 Professor Miller was appointed a member of a Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the condition of the Exchequer standards. The successful result of that inquiry was due in a great measure to the extensive knowledge of the late Professor. In 1870 he was appointed a member of the Commission Internationale du Mètre. Among other distinctions he received, we may mention that he was a foreign member of the Royal Society of Gottingen, a corresponding member of the Institute and Academies of St. Petersburg, Berlin, Turin, and Munich. Professor Miller was an industrious author. In 1831 he published "The Elements of Hydrostatics and Hydrodynamics," a work which has passed through three editions. His "Elementary Treatise on the Differential Calculus" has reached two editions. In conjunction with Mr. H. J. Brooke, F.R.S., F.G.S., he published a new edition of Mr. Phillips's "Elementary Introduction to Mineralogy," which was practically re-written. In addition to these works the late Professor has been a frequent contributor to the *Proceedings of the Royal Society*, the *Philosophical Magazine*, and other

scientific periodicals. His "Treatise on Crystallography" and his "Tract on Crystallography" have each contributed greatly to his reputation as a keen and accurate observer. At Cambridge he discharged the duties of the Professorship with the utmost regularity and with great success. He took an active share in University work, and acted as examiner on several occasions both for the Mathematical and Natural Sciences Triposes. He was a Fellow of St. John's at the time of his death.

Professor David Thomas Ansted, who died on May 20, at the age of 66 years, was a son of the late Mr. William Ansted, and was born in London in the year 1814. He graduated at Jesus College, Cambridge, as a Wrangler in 1836, and was elected in due course a Fellow of his college. In 1840 he was appointed to the Professorship of Geology in King's College, London. Five years later he became lecturer on geology at Addiscombe College, and also at the Civil Engineering College at Putney. About the same time he was made assistant secretary to the Geological Society, whose quarterly journal he edited for many years. From about 1850 down to a very recent date he was extensively engaged in the application of geology to the engineer's work, in mining, and in various other departments of industry. He has also been frequently employed as an examiner in physical geography under the officers of the Government department of Science and Art. The list of his works is far too long to quote, but among them may be mentioned—besides his contributions to the transactions of learned and scientific societies—his "Application of Geology to the Arts and Manufactures," his "Physical Geography," his "Elementary Course of Geology and Mineralogy," and "The World we Live in." He was also an extensive contributor to the "Dictionary of Science, Literature, and Art."

Eugène Lamoral, Prince de Ligne, Prince d'Amblise et d'Epinoxy, grandee of Spain, formerly President of the Belgian Senate, died on May 21, at Brussels, where he had been born in 1804. He began his political career at 26 years of age, in the Belgian Revolution, at the close of which there was an idea of confiding the lieutenancy of the kingdom to him, whilst some of his partisans went so far as to wish to elect him king. It was only in 1837 that he rallied to the new dynasty. After

representing his country on special missions at different European Courts, he was elected in 1852 to the Presidency of the Senate, which office he filled till last year, when he resigned it, as, though a staunch Liberal, he did not approve the Secular Education Bill.

Admiral Edward Tatham, C.B., died on May 22, at his residence, St. John's, Midhurst, Sussex, in the 69th year of his age. The son of Mr. Thomas Tatham, of Cadogan Place, Sloane Street, he was born in the year 1811, and entered the Navy in 1831. He obtained his first commission in 1838. In the same year he was appointed additional lieutenant on board the "Melville," flag-ship to the Hon. George Elliot at the Cape of Good Hope, but was shortly afterwards transferred to the "Columbine," on the North America and West India and East India stations. In 1841 he became first lieutenant to the "Belvidera" and the "Spartan," the latter vessel being attached to the force on the coast of North America and in the West Indies, whence he returned in 1845. In 1846 Mr. Tatham was appointed in a similar capacity to the "Raleigh." While serving on board that vessel he succeeded, at the peril of his own life, in saving that of a marine who had fallen overboard, and for this act he was promoted to the rank of commander. He afterwards served on the south-east coast of America and other stations, and commanded the "Fury" in the Crimean War. He was senior officer at Balaclava when it was attacked by Liprandi. He was promoted to a captaincy in 1854, and became a rear-admiral on the retired list in 1870. From 1867 to 1870 he was Superintendent of the Naval Hospital and Victualling Yard at Plymouth. He was nominated a Companion of the Order of the Bath (military division) in 1869, and he was also a Knight of the Legion of Honour and of the Medjidie.

Heinrich von Gagern died, on May 23, at Darmstadt. Born at Bayreuth in the year 1799, only two years after the present German Emperor, the development of whose destiny it was his lifelong aim unconsciously to promote, Gagern threw himself heart and soul into the popular movement initiated by the fighting clubs at the Universities, which greatly contributed to bring about the Liberation War, and thus early recognised German unity on a Liberal basis as the greatest political

ideal. Later on he took his seat in the Hessian Chamber, but being forced, by reason of his pronounced Liberal opinions, to throw up his Government appointment, he retired to his estate, and sought to disseminate through the medium of books and pamphlets those principles which he had found it impossible, without prejudice to his interests, to advocate in Parliament. His real political career, however, only began in 1848, when he was chosen President of the Frankfort Assembly; and it was he who, on June 24 of that year, proposed "by a bold stroke to create a central power of the Empire." The times, however, were then not yet ripe for the realisation of his political dreams. More success, probably, might have attended his unifying efforts had he not committed the great mistake of including Austria in his ideal German nation. He took part in the Schleswig-Holstein campaign of 1850, and then retired into private life till 1864, when he was sent as Hessian Ambassador to Vienna, where he remained till 1872. The last years of his life were mainly occupied with literary pursuits, and, though a very prominent character in his day, he has almost come to be forgotten, or only remembered by historians as the disabled and worn-out survivor of a struggle which was the birth-agony of an Empire.

The Rev. Richard John Meade, vicar of Castle Cary, Somersetshire, and canon of Wells Cathedral, died, on May 26, at his residence. He was a distant relative of the Earl of Clanwilliam's family, and was born in the year 1794. He was educated at Balliol College, Oxford, where he took his Bachelor's degree so far back as Michaelmas Term, 1815, when he obtained a second class in the School of *Literæ Humaniores*. Having been ordained deacon in 1816 and priest in 1817 by Dr. Beadon, Bishop of Bath and Wells, he served as curate of Norton St. Philip from 1820 to 1821, when he became rector of Marston Bigot, Somersetshire, and held the perpetual curacy of Christ Church, Frome Selwood, from 1834 to 1845. In 1845 he was appointed by the then Bishop to the living of Castle Cary, which he held down to his decease. In 1863 he was nominated a prebendary of Wells Cathedral, and in 1875 a canon residentiary. He had held the precentorship of that cathedral since 1868, and in 1874 he was chosen proctor for the Dean and Chapter of Wells in Convocation.

Colonel Edmond Favre died on May 26, at his villa of La Grange, in the canton of Geneva, in his 69th year. His ancestors for many generations had been associated with the fortunes of the Republic, and he was a direct descendant of the Edmond Favre who in 1529 signed, on behalf of the Republic of Geneva, the Treaty of Combourgeoisie with the cantons of Fribourg and Berne. The late Colonel Favre adopted the profession of arms at an early age; in 1846, while a captain of artillery, he was severely wounded while engaged in defending the local legislature against the attack of a revolutionary mob. In 1848 he entered the reorganised Federal army, and in a few years reached the grade of colonel-brigadier. He held an important command in the force which was raised in 1858 for the threatened war with Prussia arising out of the claim of the King of that country to the sovereignty of Neuchâtel. He was so struck at this time by the deficiencies of the Federal army that as soon as the difficulty in question was terminated he went abroad and studied during several years the military systems of the European countries which he considered to be most advanced in the art of war. His report on the armies of Prussia and Austria was a remarkably able work; and his provisions as to the probable issue of a conflict between these powers were strikingly verified a few years later in the Bohemian campaign and on the field of Sadowa. Colonel Favre's reputation as a military writer stood as high in other countries as in Switzerland, and many honorary distinctions were conferred upon him by foreign Governments.

The Rev. John Curwen, the originator of the Tonic Sol Fa movement in England, died on May 26, after a short illness. Mr. Curwen, who was in his 64th year, was educated at Coward College and the London University, and entered the ministry of the Independent denomination in 1838. In 1844 he became the pastor of a congregation at Plaistow, where he developed and promoted the Tonic Sol Fa system of teaching singing invented by Miss Glover, of Norwich. In 1867 Mr. Curwen retired from the ministry, owing to ill-health, and established a printing and publishing business in order to extend and promote the Tonic Sol Fa movement. He also projected a Tonic Sol Fa College, towards which a considerable sum of money has been raised.

Alfred Swaine Taylor, F.R.S., the physician and toxicologist, whose name is well known to the public in connection with poisoning cases or cases where poisoning was suspected, and on which his opinion was often sought by the Government authorities, died on May 27, at his residence in London. He was born at Northfleet, Kent, in December, 1806. He was a pupil of Sir Astley Cooper and Mr. J. H. Green at Guy's Hospital, and afterwards studied in the leading medical schools of France, Germany, and Italy. In 1830 he entered the Royal College of Surgeons, was admitted a Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians in 1848, and was elected a Fellow of the same five years later. In 1845 he was chosen a Fellow of the Royal Society. He was the first holder of the chair of Medical Jurisprudence in Guy's Hospital, and was for many years joint Professor, and subsequently sole Professor, of Chymistry. Dr. Swaine Taylor was the author of several professional treatises, more especially on the subjects of poisons and poisonings, chemistry and medical jurisprudence; and he had received the honorary degree of M.D. from the University of St. Andrew's.

Robert James Tennent, of Rush Park, county Antrim, who died on May 28, at his residence near Belfast, at the age of 77, was the only son of the late Dr. Tennent, of Belfast, by his marriage with Eliza, daughter of Dr. James Macrone, and cousin of the wife of the late Sir James Emerson-Tennent, M.P. He was born at Belfast in the year 1803, and was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, but did not remain to take a degree, as he proceeded to Greece when only just of age in order to serve as a volunteer in the War of Independence. He was called to the Irish Bar in 1833, and subsequently became a member of the English Bar also, but never practised, at all events on this side of the Channel. He was an unsuccessful candidate for Belfast in the Liberal interest at the general elections of December 1832, and December 1834; but he was returned for that constituency in 1847 at the top of the poll, with Lord John Chichester as his colleague. At the general election of 1852 he failed to retain his seat, and he never entered Parliament again. He was a magistrate for the counties of Down and Antrim, and also a deputy-lieutenant for the latter county. Mr. Tennent married in 1830 Eliza, daughter of the late Mr. John M'Cracken,

of Belfast, but was left a widower in 1850.

James Robinson Planché died on May 30, aged 84, at his residence, St. Leonard's Terrace, Chelsea, having been born on February 27, 1796. Mr. Planché's father, a descendant of one of the Huguenots who took refuge in this country on the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, was a prosperous tradesman in Old Burlington Street, and his mother won some repute as the authoress of a work on elementary education. The bent of his mind was manifested at an early age. He wrote for some schoolfellows of histrionic proclivities a burlesque called "Amoroso, King of Little Britain." The actor Harley, chancing to witness one of the performances, had the piece brought out at Drury Lane Theatre, where it met with so much success that the author promptly became a dramatist by profession. Among other things, he furnished the libretti of "Maid Marian" and Weber's "Oberon," and adapted some meritorious old plays, such as the "Woman never Vexed" and the "Merchant's Wedding," to the requirements of the stage of his own time. He now became known as an ardent antiquarian, especially in regard to costume. Mr. Charles Kemble, for example, employed him to supervise the "dressing" of all plays relating to bygone times. In 1826 he published "Lays of the Rhine," and in the following year, after a visit to the south-east of Europe, his "Descent of the Danube." In the meantime his industry as a dramatist had never abated, as may be inferred from the fact that his historical play, "Charles XII.," produced at Drury Lane in 1828, was the fifty-fifth piece which he had invented or prepared for the stage. In 1838, *à propos* of the coronation of the Queen, he wrote his "Regal Records," and in 1852 the "Poursuivant-at-Arms; or, Heraldry Founded upon Truth." It is also worthy of remark that he contributed to Mr. Charles Knight's books most of the matter relating to costume; and that, in conjunction with Mr. Oxenford, he wrote dramatic biographies for the *Penny Cyclopædia*. In 1854 he obtained congenial employment at the Heralds' College, being made Rouge Croix Poursuivant at Arms, and in 1866 Somerset Herald. He wrote a series of extravaganzas for Madame Vestris, then the manageress of the Lyceum Theatre. These pieces are undoubtedly entitled to be recognised as a part of the literature of the stage. In each case the

travesty is conceived in a spirit of refined and genial humour, abounds in graceful imagery and even wit, and is wholly free from the meretricious features imported into most of the burlesques of a later period. It is significant of the aim of these pieces that he disliked to hear them denominated burlesques instead of extravaganzas. The distinction here drawn may not be very broad, but is certainly well marked. Mr. Planché's connection with the stage

ended about twenty years ago, by which time no fewer than 200 pieces had been introduced in his name at different theatres in London. In his closing years, to say nothing of various songs and essays, he wrote a pleasant autobiography. His "History of British Costume" is, perhaps the most valuable work yet produced on that subject, and he contributed a number of interesting papers on archaeology to the association of which he was a prominent member.

On May 8, in London, aged 42, **James Hamilton Fyfe**, assistant-editor of the *Saturday Review*, and previously of the *Pall Mall Gazette* from 1867 to 1871. He was the author of a popular work on inventions and discoveries, and of another on the rise of the British Colonial Empire. On May 9, in Munich, aged 78, **Michael Wittmer**, landscape and historical painter, best known by the series of pictures he produced illustrative of the travels of the Crown Prince Maximilian of Bavaria in Greece and Turkey. On May 10, in Paris, aged 76, **Major-General Sir Benjamin Travell Phillips**, an officer of the Bengal Cavalry, which he entered in 1821. He was lieutenant of the Yeomen of the Guard from 1857-61. On May 11, at Cheltenham, aged 83, **Deputy-Commissary General William Booth, C.B.** He had served in the Commissariat under Sir John Moore and the Duke of Wellington throughout the Peninsular campaigns from 1808. On May 15, at Florence, aged 86, of Roman fever, **Henry Ashworth**, of Bollin, Lancashire, one of the founders of the Anti-Corn Law League, and the author of a history of the Corn Laws and their repeal. On May 16, at Dresden, aged 76, **Karl August Krebs**, for fifty-four years a well-known musical director and composer. At the age of 6 he attracted much attention as a pianoforte player—a talent which his daughter inherited and developed. On May 16, at Munich, aged 67, **Ludwig von Weiss**, late President of the Bavarian Court of Appeal. In 1848 he contributed greatly to the constitutional settlement in Bavaria. In 1869 he was put forward as President of the Chamber of Deputies, when a fierce party struggle ensued, the votes being equally divided on several successive divisions. To put an end to the deadlock, the King had recourse to another dissolution. On May 18, at Berlin, aged 72, **Dr. Friedrich Techow**, a man of great ability and attainments. As a member of the Berlin municipality he did much to advance the cause of education in that capital. In 1859 he was elected a member of the Prussian Landtag, joining the Progressist party; but in 1866 he took a leading part in founding the National Liberal party. He was a member of the Reichstag until 1878, when he succumbed to the Conservative reaction. On May 19, in London, aged 67, **Hon. Humphrey de Bohun Devereux**, a younger son of the fourteenth Viscount Hereford. He entered the Civil Service of the East India Company in 1829, and for many years was magistrate and collector at Howrah. On May 19, near Stafford, aged 68, **William Spooner**, son of Venerable Archdeacon Spooner, of Coventry; educated at Oriel College, Oxford; called to the Bar in 1837, and in 1863 a County Court Judge. On May 21, at Düsseldorf, aged 63, **Joseph Kehren**, a German painter of some skill. On the death of Rethel he was with others entrusted with the completion of the frescoes in the Rathhaus at Aix-la-Chapelle. On May 22, at Munich, aged 95, **Dr. von Ringseir**, once a prominent figure in the group of literary and scientific men whom King Louis of Bavaria had attracted to his capital to insure the success of his new University. On May 25, at Lagoa Santa, Brazil, aged 79, **Dr. F. V. Lund**, the Danish philosopher and zoologist, born at Copenhagen, and educated at the University there for the medical profession. Ill-health forced him to seek a milder climate in South America. On his return to Europe he became the associate and friend of Schouw and Cuvier. In 1832 he returned to Brazil. On May 27, in London, **George Honey**, a popular singer and comedian. His first appearance in London was at the Princess's Theatre in 1848, in a play called "Midas"; for some years he devoted himself to English opera, but on its decline returned to comedy and burlesque.

JUNE.

M. Hippolyte Passy, the *doyen* of French economists, died on June 1, at the age of 87. He entered the Cavalry School at Saumur in 1809, joined the army in 1812, and after sharing in the last campaigns of the Empire resigned his commission on its fall. An Opposition journalist till 1830, he was then elected deputy for Louviers, joined the Moderate Liberals, distinguished himself by his mastery of finance and political economy, was reporter on the Budgets of 1831 and 1835, Minister of Finance in the short-lived Bassano Cabinet in 1834, and Vice-President of the Chamber from 1835 to 1839, with the exception of six months' tenure of the Ministry of Commerce under Thiers in 1836. In 1839 he was commissioned to form a Cabinet, but failed, though as Minister of Finance under Soult he became virtually Premier, but a defeat on the dotation of the Duc de Nemours necessitated his retirement. In 1843 he entered the Chamber of Peers, and in 1849 he was again Minister of Finance under Louis Napoleon's Presidency. After the *coup d'état* he withdrew from political life and devoted his attention to political economy. His last public appearance was at the Conference on Thrift during the International Exhibition.

The Empress of Russia died on June 3, at St. Petersburg, aged 59. Marie Alexandrovna, the daughter of Ludwig II., Grand Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt, was born in August 1824. Her baptismal names were Maximilienne Wilhelmina Auguste Sophie Marie. In 1841 she married the Czarewitch Alexander, fourteen years before he succeeded to the throne. The life of the late Empress attracted little public attention outside the Czar's dominions. She was not an active politician, and took no conspicuous part in public affairs. She will chiefly be remembered in this country for her share in the stately ceremonials of the Czar's coronation at Moscow, in the year which witnessed the signature of the Treaty of Paris, and of the marriage of the Duke of Edinburgh in 1874. Almost the only occasion when her name was mentioned outside the records of Court ceremonial was when she exhibited her sympathy with Slavo-

phil aspirations in a harmless fashion by lending her patronage to a Congress of Slavonic men of letters which met for the purpose of framing a common alphabet for the use of the various languages spoken by the Slavonic races. She was the mother of seven children:—(1) the Grand Duke Nicholas, born 1843, died 1865; (2) the Grand Duke Alexander, heir apparent to the throne of "All the Russias," born in 1845, and married to the Princess Maria Dagmar, daughter of King Christian of Denmark, and sister of the Princess of Wales, by whom he has four children; (3) the Grand Duke Vladimir, born in 1847, and married in 1874 to the Princess Marie of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, by whom he has three sons; (4) the Grand Duke Alexis, born in 1850; (5) the Grand Duchess Marie, now Duchess of Edinburgh; (6) the Grand Duke Sergius, born in 1857; and (7) the Grand Duke Paul, who was born in 1860. The Empress had been for long suffering from an affection of the lungs, and for that reason she was ordered by her physicians to spend the last winter in Italy, but the journey thither did little towards arresting the progress of the disease.

Sir Robert Burdett, of Foremark, Derbyshire, and of Ramsbury Manor, Wiltshire, died on June 7, at his chambers in the Albany, in the 85th year of his age. He was the only son of the late Sir Francis Burdett, for many years M.P. for Westminster and afterwards for North Wiltshire, by his marriage with Sophia, daughter of the late Mr. Thomas Coutts, the eminent banker of the Strand, and brother of Lady Burdett-Coutts. He was born in April 1796, and entered the army at the usual age; he became captain in the 78th Foot in due course, but subsequently retired from the service as colonel. At his decease, and for many years previously, he had held the rank of a colonel in the army unattached. He succeeded to his father's title and estates in January 1844, and served as High Sheriff of Derbyshire four years later.

Right Hon. Sir Stephen Cave, G.C.B., died on June 7, at the age of scarcely 60. He had resigned his seat as mem-

ber for Shoreham only at this year's dissolution, and at the same time he was nominated a Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath (civil division). He went down to Windsor to be invested with that honour, and many of his friends at the time feared that he would not live long to enjoy it, as he had long been in failing health. The eldest son of the late Mr. Daniel Cave, of Cleve Hill, near Bristol, and of Sidbury Manor, near Devonshire, he was born in the year 1820, and was educated at Harrow, and at Balliol College, Oxford, where he took his Bachelor's degree in 1843, obtaining a second-class in the School of *Litteræ Humaniores*. In 1846 he was called to the Bar at the Inner Temple, and for a time went the Western Circuit. In 1859, on the death of Sir Charles Burrell, he was elected M.P. for Shoreham, and continued to represent that constituency in the Conservative interest uninterruptedly. He was sent on a special mission to Paris in 1866, and in the same year was appointed Paymaster-General and Vice-President of the Board of Trade; but this post he resigned with his party in 1868. In 1874 he was reappointed Paymaster-General, and in the winter of 1875-76 was sent to Egypt by Lord Beaconsfield as special envoy to report on the financial difficulties of that country. He was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant for Gloucestershire, a commissioner of lieutenancy for London, and president of the West India Committee; he also was at one time a director of the Bank of England and of the London Dock Company. Sir Stephen Cave married, in 1852, Emma, daughter of the late Rev. William Smyth, of Elkington Hall, Lincolnshire, sometime prebendary of Lincoln Cathedral.

John Webb, a well-known connoisseur and collector of works of fine art, and one in whose critical judgment the State and many private individuals placed the highest confidence, died on June 14. In the early days of the South Kensington Museum Mr. Webb acted as agent to that institution and to the British Museum, purchasing for both museums objects from the well-known Bernal collection. Shortly afterwards he was sent to Toulouse by the managers of the Soulages collection—Sir Dudley C. Marjoribanks, Sir Henry Cole, and the late Mr. Matthew Uzielli—to examine and report on the collection of fine art objects belonging to M. Soulages. This collection, which

eventually became one of the chief corner-stones of the national collection at Kensington, was the cause of considerable public discussion and movement. The Government hesitated about buying it. Memorials recommending its purchase were sent up from Edinburgh, Manchester, the Potteries in Staffordshire, and elsewhere; while eminent decorators and upholsterers in the metropolis addressed the Chancellor of the Exchequer in its favour. These demonstrations had no immediate effect. To retain the collection, which Mr. John Webb had successfully brought over to this country, it was bought by a committee of gentlemen, among whom were Sir Thomas Bazley, Mr. Thomas Ashton, Mr. Edmund Potter, Sir Joseph Heron, and others who were promoting the cause of the Manchester Art Treasures Exhibition. From these gentlemen the collection was subsequently and gradually purchased by the South Kensington Museum. In the course of his frequent journeys abroad Mr. John Webb purchased some precious works of art. His precise appreciation of genuine workmanship of different periods, together with his knowledge of how, when, and where remarkable works were to be obtained, enabled him to bring together many rare *objets d'art*. For some years his collections were exhibited on loan at the South Kensington Museum. They included ivory carvings—some of the earliest Byzantine times, and of a character to lie by the side of the famous Diptychs in the Vatican at Rome—ancient glass, metal works for ecclesiastical purposes, such as chalices, reliquaries, crucifixes and shrines, specimens of fourteenth and fifteenth century enamel-work, choice little ornaments and *articles de luxe*, onyx cups, &c.

George Olive, of Perrystone Court, near Ross, Herefordshire, and of Claggan, county Mayo, late M.P. for the city of Hereford, died somewhat suddenly on June 15, in his 74th year. The third son of the late Mr. Edward Bolton Olive, of Whitfield, Herefordshire, by his marriage with the Hon. Harriet, daughter of Andrew, Lord Archer (a title now extinct), he was born in the year 1806, and was educated at Harrow and at Brasenose College, Oxford, where he took his Bachelor's degree in 1827, and proceeded M.A. in due course. He was called to the Bar at Lincoln's Inn in 1830, and was formerly an Assistant

Poor Law Commissioner, and for some time a police-magistrate in London. From 1847 to 1857 he held the post of Judge of the Southwark County Court. Mr. Clive entered Parliament, in the Liberal interest, as member for Hereford, in 1857, and retained his seat till 1868; he was, however, re-elected at the general election in 1874, but retired from Parliamentary life at this year's dissolution. From 1859 to 1862 he held the office of Under-Secretary of State for the Home Department. Mr. Clive, who was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant for Herefordshire, and also a magistrate for the county of Mayo, married in 1835 Anna Sybella, daughter of the late Sir Thomas Harvie Farquhar, by whom he has left a family.

William Thomas Thornton, C.B., died on June 17. He was the youngest son of Mr. Thomas Thornton, president of the Levant Company's establishment at Constantinople, born on February 14, 1813, and had, therefore, entered on his 68th year. He was educated at the Moravian establishment at Ockbrook, near Derby. He passed part of his early years at Malta and part at Constantinople, and in 1836 entered a service which was to be the work of his life by obtaining a clerkship in the East India House. On the transfer of the Government of India to the Crown Mr. Thornton was appointed to the important post of Secretary for Public Works in the India Office, a post which he held to the day of his death. The Duke of Argyll marked his sense of the value of Mr. Thornton's services to the department by recommending him in 1873 for a Companionship of the Bath. Mr. Thornton was a man of literary tastes. Besides several treatises on economical and philosophical subjects, he published two or three volumes of poems, and his last effort was that most difficult one of translating Horace into English verse.

General John Augustus Sutter died at Washington on June 18, in the 78th year of his age. It is stated that it was upon his farm gold was first discovered in California. He was born at Baden, and was a general in the army of Charles X., of France. After 1830 General Sutter emigrated to America, and eventually settled on a wild spot in the Sacramento Valley. The Mexican Government made him a grant of land and appointed him their Indian agent, and "Sutter's Fort" became known all over the country. He was

the centre of a prosperous community. But the sudden rush of gold-diggers squatting upon his land overwhelmed him. Once, probably, the wealthiest man on the Pacific coast, owner of 150,000 acres of land, he died at Washington while trying to secure a grant from Congress to indemnify him for his losses.

Carl Petersen died at Copenhagen on June 24. His name is connected with some of the most renowned Arctic explorations. He was a born Dane, but had lived many years in Greenland, and had there acquired a perfect knowledge of the Esquimaux language, being at the same time a most skilled hunter and fisherman. At the age of 37 he was engaged by Captain Penny as interpreter, and accompanied his expedition in the years 1850-51. Some years later he followed Dr. Kane on his unfortunate expedition, when the vessel had to be left in the ice and the crew were nearly starved and frozen to death. He had not been home more than a couple of weeks, after returning from a two years' stay in Greenland, before he went out again as interpreter with the "Fox," Captain Sir Leopold M'Clintock, with Mr. (now Sir) Allan Young as sailing master. Of this expedition, lasting from 1857 to 1859, and leading to the discovery of the fate of Sir John Franklin, he has written a graphic description, supplying many details wanting in the well-known book of Sir L. M'Clintock, and inscribed with the words chosen by Jane Franklin for the flag of the "Fox," "Hold-fast" happening to be quite as correct in Danish as in English. In 1861 he accompanied the Swedish naturalists, Mr. Torell and the now famous Nordenskjöld, on their first expedition to Spitzbergen, and when, in last April, the "Vega" passed Copenhagen, the hardy old sportsman and sailor, with his cross and Arctic medal, was one of the friendly faces greeting the discoverer of the North-Eastern Passage. Mr. Petersen died from heart-disease at the age of 67.

Edward Heneage, of Stag's End, near Hemel Hempstead, who died on June 25 in the 78th year of his age, represented Great Grimsby in the Liberal interest from 1835 down to 1852, when he was defeated by Lord Annesley. He was the second son of the late Mr. George R. Heneage, of Hainton, Lincolnshire, by his marriage with Frances Anne, daughter of the late Lieutenant

General Ainslie, and was born in the year 1802. He was educated at Eton and at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took his Bachelor's degree in 1824, and proceeded M.A. in due course. Mr. Heneage, who was a deputy-lieutenant for Lincolnshire, married first, in 1840, Charlotte, daughter of the late Colonel Lancelot Rolleston, M.P., of Watnall Hall, Notts; and secondly, in 1853, Miss Renée Hoare, daughter of the late Captain Richard Hoare, R.N., but was again left a widow in 1871.

General Lord George Augustus Frederick Paget, K.C.B., died on June 30, in Farm Street, Mayfair. The sixth son of Henry William, first Marquis of Anglesea, K.G., by his marriage with Lady Charlotte Cadogan, second daughter of Charles, first Earl Cadogan, he was born in March 1818, and entered the Army in 1834. He was appointed Lieutenant-Colonel of the 4th Dragoons in 1846, and served in the Eastern campaign of 1854-55, when he commanded the above regiment at the battle of the Alma and in the Light Cavalry charge of Balaclava. He also commanded the Light Cavalry brigade at the battles of

Inkermann and the Tchernaya, and on the expedition to Eupatoria, &c. He was promoted to the rank of colonel in 1854, became major-general in 1861, lieutenant-general in 1871, and general in 1877. He was appointed to the command of the Sirhind Division of the Bengal Army in 1862, colonel of the 7th Dragoon Guards in 1868, and colonel of the 4th Hussars in 1874. He was nominated a Companion of the Order of the Bath (military division) in 1855, and was promoted to a Knight Commandership of that Order in 1869. He was also an Officer of the Legion of Honour, a Knight of the Order of the Medjidie (3rd class), and a brigadier-general in Turkey. His lordship sat in the House of Commons in the Liberal interest as member for Beaumaris (which had been previously represented by his cousin, Colonel Frederick Paget) from 1847 down to 1857. He was twice married—first, in 1854, to his cousin, Agnes Charlotte, fifth daughter of the late Right Hon. Sir Arthur Paget, G.C.B., and secondly, in 1861, to Louisa, youngest daughter of Mr. Charles Heneage.

On June 4, at Quincy, Illinois, U.S., aged 84, **ex-Governor John Wood**, one of the few remaining pioneers of the great "Sucker State." In 1821 he put up his cabin on the ground on which the city of Quincy now stands, but at the time there was no settlement on the Mississippi within fifty miles on either side of him. He filled all the local and State offices, having been Senator and Governor. On June 6, at Karlsruhe, aged 73, **Professor Karl Friedrich Lessing**, director of the picture-gallery there. He was distinguished both as an historical and landscape painter. His works relating to the Hussite persecution, now in the National Gallery of Berlin, are reckoned as his best. On June 10, at Paris, aged 59, **General Aymard**, Governor of Paris. He had taken part in the Crimean, Mexican, and German campaigns. After the war he was charged with the reorganisation of the 16th Army Corps at Montpellier, where he remained until 1878, when he succeeded General de Ladmirault as Governor of Paris. On June 13, at Berlin, **Professor Strach**, chief architect to the German Emperor, and designer of the Berlin National Gallery, the Column of Victory, &c. On June 16, at Bognor, aged 72, **Charles George Lewis**, son of Frederic Christian Lewis, late engraver to the Queen, and brother of the late John Frederic Lewis, R.A. He followed his father's profession, and was best known by his engravings of Sir Edwin Landseer's and Rosa Bonheur's works. On June 20, **James Dafforne**, for many years associate-editor of the *Art Journal*, the author of the lives of many contemporary artists and other works on art subjects. On June 20, at Berlin, aged 62, **Karl Wilhelm Nitzsch**, Professor of History in the University. His principal works were "The Gracchi" and "Römische Annalistik." On June 20, aged 98, the second **Earl of Kilmorey**, the oldest member of the Irish peerage. He had held the title since 1832, when he succeeded his father. On June 25, at Rome, **Rev. Joseph Mullooley**, Prior of the Irish Dominicans, to whose exertions and archaeological perception was due the discovery of the ancient basilica beneath the existing Church of St. Clement's, which dates from the twelfth century. The work of excavation had begun in 1857, and had been going on ever since. On June 27, at Rüdersdorf, near Berlin, **Professor C. W. Borchardt**, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Berlin and formerly at the Military Academy. Since 1856 he had been editor of the *Journal for Pure and Applied Mathematics*, the oldest existing periodical of that nature. On June 28, at Potsdam, aged 72, **General von Löwenfeld**, distinguished for his skill in commanding the 9th Infantry Division during the Austro-Prussian War, 1866, and especially in the battles round Nachod.

JULY.

Major-General Thomas Robert Crawley, late commanding the 15th Hussars and 6th Inniskillings, died on July 2, at York Terrace, Regent's Park, aged 62. He entered the army in 1834. His first service of importance was at the siege of Mooltan. Subsequently he served as extra aide-de-camp to Sir Henry Dundas, commanding the Bombay division of the army of the Punjab. He was present at the battle of Goojerat, and took part in the subsequent pursuit of the Sikh forces. In November 1862, a court-martial was held on him at Aldershot for having acted with undue severity towards Sergeant-Major Lilley, at Mhow, in May 1862, when the latter was confined in close arrest. After a month's trial, the court pronounced Colonel Crawley not guilty, and restored to him the command of his regiment, whilst several witnesses who seemed to have been actuated by ill-will towards him, were draughted to other regiments, or dismissed the service.

George Ripley, LL.D., died at New York on July 4, in his 78th year. He was the originator and chief promoter of the Brook Farm experiment, in which he was associated with a remarkable coterie of gifted men and women, including Hawthorn, Emerson, Alcott, Thoreau, Margaret Fuller, and many other well-known Transcendentalists. Dr. Ripley put all his property into the enterprise, and withdrew in 1846 almost penniless. For the last thirty years of his life he was literary editor of the *Tribune*. In 1853 he undertook, with Charles A. Dana, the editorship of Appleton's "New American Cyclopaedia," in sixteen volumes. He was also joint editor with Mr. Dana of the revised edition which appeared in 1873-4. In conjunction with Bayard Taylor he prepared in 1854 a "Handbook of Literature and the Fine Arts."

Pierce Egan, the novelist, died at his residence at Ravensbourne, Burnt Ash, Lee, Kent, on July 6. He was the son of Pierce Egan, the author of "Boxiana" and "Life in London." The gentleman who has just died was born on December 19, 1814. He was educated for an artist and studied successfully at the Royal Academy, but soon turned his attention to the more congenial pursuit of letters, becoming one of the

pioneers of cheap literature. His earlier historical works, "Robin Hood," "Wat Tyler," and "Quentin Matsys," first published in 1837 and the following years in penny weekly numbers, illustrated with etchings and drawings on wood from his own pencil, were very successful. In 1842, when the late Mr. Ingram started the *Illustrated London News*, Mr. Pierce Egan joined its artistic staff, and also provided the etchings for "Webster's Acting Drama" and many other works. In 1847 he started, and edited during the five years of its existence, the *Home Circle*, a periodical founded with the avowed object of providing pure and wholesome literature for the million. Relieved from his editorial labours, he published in weekly numbers, as before, "The Black Prince," "Clifton Grey," and "The London Apprentice." Subsequently he commenced to write modern domestic novels, at first for *Reynolds's Miscellany* and afterwards for the *London Journal*, which he joined in 1857, and with which, until quite recently, his name had been intimately associated. He was for some time consulting editor of the *Weekly Times*.

Dr. Paul Broca, who was lately elected a life member of the French Senate, died suddenly on July 9. He was 56 years of age. Born at St. Foy, in the Gironde, he was brought up to the medical profession, and became Professor of Surgical Pathology at the Faculty of Paris. Between 1853 and 1865 he published various professional treatises, but of late years had gained a wider celebrity as an anthropologist. He was the leader in France of the Evolutionist school, as M. Quatrefages is of the opposite party; both of them, by the way, being Protestants. The Advanced Left did itself honour a few months ago by choosing such a *savant* for the vacant senatorship falling to its turn, and Dr. Broca recently drew up for the Senate a report on female secondary education. His death, which was due to the rupture of an aneurism, was regretted by men of all parties and opinions.

Major-General Thomas Raikes, C.B., died on July 10, in the 59th year of his age. Born in 1822, he entered the Army in 1840, was promoted to a lieutenancy in 1844, and obtained a

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captaincy in 1854. He served with the 1st Madras Fusiliers in the Burmese war of 1852-53, including the relief of Pegu and subsequent operations in its vicinity, and commanded a detachment at the recapture of Beeling. He also served in the suppression of the Mutiny in Bengal in 1857-58, and was present with General Havelock's column at the actions of Futtehpore, Aoung, Pandoo, and Cawnpore. He commanded a detachment under General Neill for the defence of Cawnpore during Havelock's first entry into Oude, and was afterwards present at the actions of Bithoor, Mungarwar, and Alumbagh, the relief of Lucknow, and the defence of the Residency. He also took part in the occupation of Alumbagh under General Outram, and also in the capture of Lucknow. He was engaged in the campaign in Oude in 1858, including the passage of the Goomtee at Sultanpore, and other minor affairs. He also commanded a field column of all arms from the 7th to the 22nd of October, 1858, and defeated the enemy at Shahpore. He was nominated a Companion of the Order of the Bath (Military Division) in 1869, and became major-general in 1877.

The Rev. John Gale Miller, D.D., an eminent member of the Evangelical party, who died on July 11, aged 66, was the son of Mr. John Miller, who held an appointment in connection with the American Embassy in this country. He was born at Margate in 1814, and was educated at Brompton Grammar School. From thence he went up to St. John's College, Oxford, but migrated to Lincoln College on gaining a scholarship there, and graduated first-class in Lit. Hum. in 1835. He was ordained in 1837 and became curate of Bexley, Kent. In 1839 he was appointed assistant minister, and in 1840 incumbent of Park Chapel, Chelsea; but his great work was at St. Martin's, Birmingham, where during a twenty years' ministry he obtained an influence in the town second only to that of Dr. Hook at Leeds, and Dr. McNeile at Liverpool. In his church at Birmingham the first special services for the working classes were held; he introduced midday services for business men; and he first, in the public worship of the Church, divided the various services—Morning Prayer, Litany, and Communion. The Working Men's Association in his parish of St. Martin's was one of the very earliest of those institutions, and all his parochial agencies were in perfect

order. In February, 1866, he was appointed by the Crown to the vicarage of Greenwich, and subsequently, in 1871, to a canonry in his old diocese at Worcester, where he had been an honorary canon since 1852. He was transferred in 1872 to a canonry at Rochester, in the diocese where his work of late years lay. In both cathedrals he left his mark, while in his parish he was indefatigable. Though essentially belonging to the working clergy, Dr. Miller was the author of a number of sermons, tracts, pamphlets, and other theological works. He was a very effective preacher, and frequently occupied the pulpit in churches served by High Churchmen. In November, 1866, he was appointed Select Preacher to the University of Oxford. He spoke frequently in Convocation and served on many committees. At gatherings of the Evangelical body, such as that at Islington, he took a prominent part, but always, with his friends Prebendary Cadman and Canon (now Bishop) Ryle, on the side of moderation. With both Bishops Claughton and Thorold he was on terms of warm friendship. To the latter he became in 1877 an examining chaplain, and in many other ways he co-operated in most diocesan works. Canon Miller took a great interest in public affairs. He was one of the original members of the London School Board, being returned for Greenwich in 1870; and in politics he was well known as a strong supporter of Mr. Gladstone, when the present Prime Minister sat for the constituency. He was one of the few clergy who strongly advocated the Disestablishment of the Irish Church.

Isaac Pereire died at Armainvilliers, on July 12, having survived his brother Emile about five years. Born in 1806 and descended from a Portuguese Jewish family, he commenced life, like his brother, as a commercial traveller, and, like him also, was for several years an enthusiastic St. Simonian. Their contract for the construction of the St. Germain Railway was the foundation of their financial celebrity, and they afterwards contracted for the Northern line. In 1852 they founded the *Crédit Mobilier*, which after a run of prosperity, during which it took the chief part in building the houses along Baron Haussmann's new boulevards, fell into difficulties, and the Pereires had not only to resign the management, but to pay a large sum to the shareholders. They continued, how-

ever, to take a prominent part in Parisian finance. Isaac was a Deputy from 1863 to 1869, and since the fall of the Empire he had been ranked as a moderate Bonapartist, though more interested in economic, social, and religious questions than in politics. While a St. Simonian he delivered and published a course of lectures on industry and finance, and while a contributor to the *Débats* he introduced the daily Bourse article, which was speedily imitated by the rest of the Press. He was a staunch advocate of free-trade, and while, ostensibly at least, a Jew, he strongly deprecated attempts to uproot Catholicism. One of his last acts was to offer a series of prizes for essays on the extinction of pauperism. His death is deeply regretted by all classes.

Tom Taylor, author, journalist, and playwright, died on July 12, at his residence, Lavender Sweep, Wandsworth. He was born near Sunderland in 1817, his father, who became one of the first aldermen of that town, being a moderately prosperous brewer, and his mother of German parentage. His early life afforded yet another verification of Wordsworth's phrase as to the child being father of the man. Long before it was thought necessary to tie him down to his school books, he wrote several little melodramatic pieces. These were performed by a number of children in a loft over the brewer's stables, the youthful dramatist at once reserving the most important characters to himself and looking after the stage management. Unfortunately, however, he could not be induced to dispense with the aid of thunder and lightning, and, as the use of resin in such a place was attended with some risk, the performances were abruptly stopped. Then, like Hans Christian Andersen, but at an earlier age than the poor unlettered Dane, he conceived a passion for writing plays in which a set of puppets, rudely contrived by himself, might figure to advantage. "I set up," he once wrote, "as a manager of marionettes—happy manager, who could make his own actors and yet get all the credit for it without earning their ill-will! My sister was my costumier; I was builder of my own theatre, painter of my own scenes, writer of my own plays, as well as maker of my own actors." Having learnt his classical rudiments at the Grange School in Sunderland, he proceeded to Glasgow University, where he received three gold medals, and thence, in 1837, to Trinity College,

Cambridge. The hopes centred on him by his parents as to his progress here were not disappointed, although he devoted much time to writing articles in the Liberal interest for the *Independent*, to practical studies in painting and sculpture, and to getting up many of the theatrical entertainments given at that period in the spacious stable-loft belonging to Jobmaster Jordan. He was elected a Fellow of Trinity, having taken his degree as a Junior Optime and in the first class of the Classical Tripos. He was also one of the leading spirits of the Cambridge "Apostles." In 1843, giving up in favour of his brothers the allowance hitherto made him by his father, he came to London, and in due time was called to the Bar. For two years he was Professor at University College, London, of English language and literature. The law was not to number him among its votaries. In 1850 he was appointed Assistant Secretary, and in 1854 Secretary-in-Chief, of the Board of Health. The functions of this body were eventually transferred to the Local Government Acts Office, which in its turn was merged in the Local Government Board. The office held by Mr. Taylor was then abolished, and in recognition of many services he had rendered in the way of sanitary improvement a liberal pension was bestowed upon him. In the meantime he had so far profited by the little leisure left to him as to win a prominent place among men of letters as a dramatist, critic, biographer, and humorist. To the drama, as was to be expected, he devoted himself with particular ardour. In or about 1846, after taking part with Albert Smith and Mr. Charles Kenny in producing a "rhymed fairy tale," or rather extravaganza, he wrote for Mr. Alfred Wigan, in whose house he then lived, the broadly comic "Trip to Kissingen," the story of which had been suggested to him by an old college friend. From this time until 1875 he contributed in rapid succession more than a hundred pieces to the stage, the majority being adaptations of or indirectly derived from French plays or stories. The best of them, perhaps, were "To Parents and Guardians," "Still Waters Run Deep," "Victims," "The Unequal Match," "Plot and Passion," "A Sheep in Wolf's Clothing," "The Contested Election," "The Overland Route," "The Fool's Revenge," "The Ticket-of-Leave Man," "The Serf," and "Clancarty." In three plays—"Twixt Axe and Crown," "Joan of

Arc," and "Anne Boleyn"—he attempted to revive dramatic interest in five acts and blank verse. He also attained distinction as an art critic, and acted in that capacity for the *Times*. He also wrote a biography of Haydon, treating the enthusiasm and failings of that unhappy artist with delicacy and tact, and completed the account, begun by C. R. Leslie, of the "Life and Times of Sir Joshua Reynolds." Now and then he officiated as a dramatic critic, aided in his task by a practical acquaintance with dramatic and histrionic art. His early passion for acting continued unabated to the last; indeed, it may be taken for granted that had not better opportunities fallen to his lot he would have become an actor by profession. For example, in 1879, when "As You Like It" was played at Manchester in memory of Mr. Charles Calvert, he played Adam—originally represented, according to tradition, by Shakespeare himself—with unusual effect. He was also much commended as Jasper Carew in "A Sheep in Wolf's Clothing." From the time of his arrival in London, it remains to be said, he was associated with *Punch*, and in 1873, on the death of Mr. Shirley Brooks, he became the editor of that periodical. His work as such was a heavy tax upon his energies—so much so, in fact, that except as a critic he thenceforward put down his pen.

Anton Csengery died on July 13, at his villa near Buda-Pesth, in the fifty-ninth year of his age. He occupied a very high position in the esteem and respect of all classes of his countrymen. He was a member of the Hungarian Diet, and Vice-President of the Academy of Sciences, in the establishment of which he had a very large share, and the success of which is greatly owing to his unflinching exertions. He was also President of the Hungarian Agricultural Bank, and was one of the leading authorities on matters connected with farming and general finance. He knew the English language and literature thoroughly, and translated Macaulay's "History of England" into Magyar. He was one of Deak's most intimate friends and advisers, and co-operated most cordially with him in effecting the arrangement of 1867. Csengery was, in religion, a Calvinist of the old Hungarian Confession; but several Roman Catholic dignitaries were among his intimate friends. He was in politics a Liberal, but a determined adherent of the dynasty. As soon as the

Emperor heard of Csengery's death he sent a telegraphic despatch to his widow expressing his profound regret for what "was a severe blow for the nation and his own house."

Gideon Scott Lang, who died July 13, in New South Wales, was born in Scotland in 1819, and arrived in New South Wales about 1842. He went again to Europe in 1858, and remained there till 1860. While in Europe he especially interested himself with matters in connection with the Italian campaign, identifying himself with the interests of Garibaldi, with whom he was personally acquainted. On this subject he addressed a series of letters to the *Times*, which attracted considerable attention. On his return to this colony he warmly espoused the interests of Riverina, agitating for a separation of that district, but the matter fell through. Afterwards engaging himself variously in mining and other pursuits in Victoria, he was ultimately persuaded by his friends to come to Sydney, which he did last year. Here he held a responsible position in connection with the International Exhibition, identifying himself particularly with the stock and agricultural department, of which he was appointed manager. On the closing of the Exhibition, the Government, recognising his capabilities, appointed him appraiser of runs, but in consequence of the illness to which he ultimately succumbed overtaking him, he never actively officiated. For many years he held a commission of the peace for both this and the adjoining colony. During his sojourn in the colonies he has always been associated with their advancement. His literary skill and general knowledge were well known among a numerous and influential circle, and by his lectures and writings on various colonial topics he will be long remembered.

George Frederick Blackwood, was born in 1838, the second son of the late Major William Blackwood, of the Bengal Army, and a grandson of the founder of the well-known publishing house of that name. He was educated at the Edinburgh Academy, and afterwards passed to Addiscombe, where he made choice of the Artillery branch of the Bengal Service. He was gazetted a lieutenant on December 11, 1857, and was soon hurried out to India, where he served in the suppression of the Mutiny with the Rohilkund Movable Column, under the command of Lieu-

tenant-Colonel Wilkinson, 42nd Royal Highlanders. In this force Blackwood was intrusted with the command of two guns. His services here led to a divisional adjutancy of artillery, the duties of which he discharged from 1869 to 1862 at Bareilly and Gwalior. From November, 1862, to December, 1863, he acted as adjutant of the 22nd Brigade R.A., and afterwards as adjutant of the 19th Brigade until September, 1864. He received his captaincy in February, 1867, and was selected for the command of the artillery in the Looshai expedition, under Brigadier-General Bouchier, C.B. Captain Blackwood was present at the attacks on Tipai Mukh, Kung-nung, and Taikooni, and earned the praise of General Bouchier, who in his despatch, dated March 19, 1872, wrote as follows:—"Captain Blackwood and officers, R.A. nobly sustained the reputation of the corps. The word 'difficulty' was unknown to them." Captain Blackwood's report upon the artillery in the Looshai campaign contained many valuable suggestions as to the nature of the gun most suitable for such service, and on the management of artillery and the equipment of elephants in mountain, jungle, and morass campaigning; and was printed and published by the Government of India. His services in this expedition were rewarded with a brevet majority in September, 1872. He afterwards commanded a battery of the Royal Horse Artillery during the absence in England of Major and Lieutenant-Colonel Hills, C.B. Obligated to take sick-leave to England, he was prevented from sharing in the first part of the Afghan war, but after the massacre at Cabul he was moved up to Candahar, in command of the E Battery, B Brigade. On the advance of Ayoob Khan, he was ordered out in command of the artillery under General Burrows, and correspondence from Can-

dahar speaks of the high state of efficiency in which his gunners took the field. In the action with the mutinous troops of the Wali the artillery distinguished themselves in the punishment of the rebels, and General Primrose reports that "the determined energy with which the artillery was brought up to the front reflects the highest credit on Major G. F. Blackwood." He fell in the battle of Kushk-i-Nakhud, in the final charge of the Ghazies; and his little band of men was the last which made any stand against the enemy on the unfortunate 27th July.

Dr. Edward Wippermann, formerly Professor of State Law in the Universities of Giessen and Heidelberg, whose vicissitudes illustrate the past political condition of Germany, died at Smalkald on July 30. His elder brother was a member of the Assembly of the States of Electoral Hesse, and was a violent opponent, nearly half a century ago, of the administrative system of Herr Hasenpflug. On this account the younger Wippermann was refused permission to qualify himself for any post in the public service, and was forced to quit Hesse. After a distinguished career as a student at Göttingen, he became privatdocent there, whence he was invited to become Professor at Heidelberg, and subsequently at Giessen. But in 1850 he was a member of the Hessian Chamber at Darmstadt, which took the extreme course of "refusing the supplies" in order to enforce the demand for reform. For his conduct on this occasion he was dismissed from his professorship. He lived for some time as privatdocent in Zurich and Marburg, and then settled down as a consulting lawyer on questions of law connected with State supremacy over private proprietary rights—a subject on which he was believed to be one of the best authorities in Germany.

On July 1, at Blois, aged 55, **Auguste Bonheur**, a French landscape painter. Studied under his father and with his sister, the celebrated Rosa Bonheur. On July 3, at Deal, aged 57, **Major-General John Henry Stewart, R.M.L.A.** Served as lieutenant at the storming of Sidon and taking of Acre in 1840. On July 3, at Cheltenham, aged 76, **Lieutenant-Colonel William Charles Newhouse**, of 65th and 5th Foot. Served in the Mahratta war of 1817, in two expeditions to Cutch, and in the expedition to the Persian Gulf in 1819 and 1821. On July 5, aged 79, **Charles Trevor**, twenty-five years Controller of Legacy Duties, and associated with Sir Henry Thring and Mr. Peter Erle in drafting the Succession Duty Act, passed by Mr. Gladstone in 1853. He retired from the public service in 1864. On July 6th, aged 83, **Aldborough John Bridges Henniker**, of Mayfurlong and Grindon, Staffordshire, and Calcott, Somerset. On July 6, at Debden Hall, Essex, aged 71, **Sir Francis Vincent**, 10th Bart., for a short time after the passing of the Reform Bill (1832-5) M.P. for St. Albans. On July 10, aged 59, **Herr Kallina von Urbanow**, Statthalter or Viceroy of Moravia, since the month of March, having been transferred from the Presidency of Carniola. On July 10, at Sydney, New South Wales

Reuben Uther, a hatter, one of the eighty colonists who on January 26, 1808, signed the paper addressed to Major Johnstone, then in command of the troops, for reasons stated, to remove Governor Bligh. On July 11, at Paris, aged 70, **M. de Ponnuyrac**, French miniaturist and portrait painter, born at Porto Rico. On July 12, at Breslau, aged 57, **Karl Neumann**, Professor of History and Geography; published in 1856 "The Greeks in the Country of the Scythians." On July 13, near Buda-Pesth, aged 42, **Emerich Zlinsky**, a Judge of the Supreme Court of Hungary, a post to which he had been promoted at the age of 37, on account of his brilliant talents. On July 18, at Peckham, aged 88, **Commander William Stocker Robbins, R.N.** Entered the navy in 1807, and saw active service in the Scheldt, Baltic, off the Texel, Cadiz, and Christiania, and in the West Indies. On July 18, at Latton, Wilts, aged 64, **Sir Cecil Beadon, K.C.S.I.** Educated at Haileybury; went to India in 1836; passed through various grades, until in 1862 he was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, a post he resigned in 1866. On July 18, in London, aged 52, the **Earl of Kintore**. He took an active part in Scottish ecclesiastical affairs, was Lord-Lieutenant of Kincardineshire from 1856-64, and subsequently of Aberdeenshire. On July 20, at Dalhousie Castle, N.B., **Admiral George Ramsey**, 12th Earl of Dalhousie, born 1806. He served in the navy from 1820 until 1864, when he retired as a vice-admiral. He succeeded in 1874 his cousin, better known as the Right Honourable Fox Maule, and afterwards Lord Panmure. On July 21, **Edmund James Smith, C.E.**, Crown Receiver for the Northern Counties; Surveyor to the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, besides holding many other important posts to which he had been appointed on account of his special knowledge and capacity. He was altogether a self-made man, having risen from a humble origin. His last important work was to negotiate with the London Water Companies for the purchase of their rights and privileges. On July 23, in London, **James Lempriere Hammond**, Assistant Endowed Schools Commissioner, and late tutor and bursar of Trinity College, Cambridge. He was bracketed senior classic of his year, and took high mathematical honours. On July 24, at Vienna, aged 68, **Heinrich Drasche**, the first Austrian who employed porcelain terra-cotta as building ornaments, and the manufacturer of two-thirds of the bricks of which new Vienna is built. He was an active philanthropist, doing a vast amount of good during his lifetime. His fortune at his death was estimated at 20,000,000 florins. On July 26, at Edinburgh, **Maurice Lothian**, originally a member of the Free Church of Scotland, and a vigorous opponent of its union with the United Presbyterian Church, but subsequently an active member of the Established Church of Scotland. On July 28, at Castle Rising, near Lynn, Norfolk, aged 43, the **Hon. Greville Theophilus Howard**, second son of the 17th Earl of Suffolk and Berkshire; at one time a Commissioner in Lunacy. On July 30, at Eschwegen, aged 72, **Dr. Eugene Hofling**, a country physician, the author of the popular German student song, "O alte Burschenherrlichkeit."

AUGUST.

Raffaele Conforti, ex-Minister and Vice-President of the Italian Senate, died on August 3, in the Palace of Caserta. From the year 1848 until 1870 he played an active and at times a very important part in the regeneration of his country, and continued to take his share in public business until within a few months of his death. His life, like that of many of his contemporaries, was a compendium of nearly fifty years of Neapolitan and Italian history, and of the vicissitudes and rapid changes of fortune of an Italian patriot's career. Four times he was a Cabinet Minister in periods of great difficulty and trouble. He was Minister to three Kings and one Dictator. He had to fly from his native

city, and during more than ten years of exile he lay under condemnation to death. **Raffaele Conforti** was born in the year 1808, at Calvanico, a small village in the province of Salerno. His grandfather had been one of the most prominent figures in the Neapolitan Republic of the last century, and suffered on the scaffold for political offences. His grandfather's example was held up to him by his father, and he grew in years inspired by an ardent desire for political liberty. Having completed his studies, he was called to the Neapolitan Bar, and practised with considerable success. Among his most intimate friends at that time was **Carlo Poerio**. In 1848 he was named Procurator-

General of the High Criminal Court of Naples, afterwards Prefect of Police, and when Ferdinand II. decided upon calling a Liberal Ministry, the portfolio of the Interior, under the presidency of the illustrious historian, Carlo Troja, was intrusted to him. He participated in the resolution of the Neapolitan Government to send a body of troops under General Pepe to join the Piedmontese army against the Austrians, and continued in office until May 15, 1849, the day of the barricades and the *Coup d'État*. Assisted by the French Consul, he was able to escape on board the 'Ariel,' which carried him to Genoa, and in the process which followed he was condemned to death in contumacy. During the following ten years he practised at the Bar of Turin. Then came the events of 1860, and returning immediately to Naples he became Minister of the Interior, under the dictatorship of Garibaldi, and rendered inestimable service to his country in influencing the General to call the *plebiscite*, against the advice of Mazzini and others who urged him to summon the Constituent. In 1861 he was returned to the Italian Parliament by the College of Mercato, and in 1862 he accepted the portfolio of Grace and Justice in the Rattazzi Administration, but resigned after the catastrophe of Aspremonde. In the elections of 1865 he lost his seat. Shortly afterwards he was named Procurator-General of the Court of Cassation of Florence, but at his own request was transferred in the same capacity to Naples. In 1867 he was raised to the Senate, and during two Legislatures held office as one of its Vice-Presidents. Finally, in March, 1878, he formed part of the first Cairoli Administration, in which he held the portfolio of Grace and Justice. In Parliament he always sat on the Left Centre.

Thomas Henry Wyatt, F.R.I.B.A., &c., the well-known architect, whose death occurred on August 5, at the age of 73 years, was the eldest son of the late Mr. Matthew Wyatt, Metropolitan Police Magistrate. He was born in Ireland, and at an early age was sent to Malta, with a view to his entering upon commercial pursuits, but on the death of his father he returned to England, and went into the office of the late Mr. Philip Hardwick, F.R.S., the architect, as a pupil. He began at an opportune moment. The construction of the St. Katharine Docks and Warehouses was in progress, and he had the advantage of seeing the system of

engineering construction pursued there. At the expiration of his pupilage he was appointed district surveyor of Hackney. His professional engagements increasing rapidly, he entered into partnership with Mr. David Brandon, F.R.I.B.A., and on the termination of the connection he carried on his work alone, until about twenty years ago, when he was assisted by his son, Mr. Matthew Wyatt, who has for some considerable time taken charge of the principal works of the office. During a practice extending over nearly fifty years, Mr. T. H. Wyatt has designed and superintended the construction of a large number of important buildings, of which we may mention the Exchange-buildings, Liverpool; the Adelphi Theatre, London; the County Asylum, Devizes; the beautiful little church at Wilton for the late Mr. Sidney Herbert; the restoration of Wimborne Minster; St. Aidan's College, Birkenhead; the additions to the Consumption Hospital at Brompton, now in course of construction; the Assize Courts at Winchester, Devizes, Brecon, Cambridge, and Usk; the railway station at Florence; the Garrison Chapel at Woolwich (in conjunction with his brother, the late Sir Digby Wyatt); additions to several of the metropolitan hospitals; and recently the new Guards' Barracks in Hyde Park. The construction or the restoration of upwards of 150 churches, besides a great number of private houses, was committed to him. He had a genuine feeling for art and knew where to restore instead of introducing novelties, and his works were remarkable for good taste. In 1870 he was elected President of the Royal Institute of British Architects, of which he was one of the earliest members, and at the termination of his presidentship in 1873, he received the Queen's Gold Medal. He was honorary architect to the Institution of Civil Engineers (whose new buildings he designed and superintended), as also to the Athenæum Club, the Middlesex Hospital, &c. He was consulting architect to the Commissioners in Lunacy, the Incorporated Society for the Rebuilding of Churches, &c.

William Henry Giles Kingston, the boys' novelist, died at his residence, Willesden, on August 5, after a painful illness. He was born in 1814, but did not commence writing until 1844, and his first work was "The Circassian Chief." The favourable reception this met with so far encouraged the author

that he shortly afterwards produced "The Prime Minister," a Portuguese story of the times of the great Marquis of Pombal. This was followed by Lusitanian sketches, being his own travels and adventures in Portugal, where he had resided some time. The success which attended the publication decided the author upon a literary career. In 1851 appeared the stirring adventures of "Peter the Whaler," which still forms an attractive book for the young. From that time to within a month of his decease his labours were unremitting, and some idea may be formed of his industry when we state that he has been the author of no less than 125 works of the character we have described. As a boy it had been his earliest wish to enter the navy, and in late life many opportunities were afforded him by friends to take cruises on board men-of-war, by which means he gained a practical knowledge of seamanship, which enabled him to give graphic pictures of sailor life. For several years he was constantly afloat, either in his own yacht, merchant vessels, or men-of-war. After a tour through the southern part of Europe he resided for some time in Portugal, where the civil war was still going on, and afterwards travelled through Holland, Belgium, Germany, and Spain. He next visited Canada and the United States, "Western Wanderings" containing the incidents of his journey. Mr. Kingston turned to good account the knowledge of men and manners which he gained during his travels, and of late not a year has passed but five or six books have appeared, foremost among which are "The Three Midshipmen," "The Three Lieutenants," "The Three Commanders," and "The Three Admirals," a popular History of the Navy, works for soldiers, sailors, &c. Notwithstanding the time necessarily occupied in his literary labours, he found leisure to interest himself in the works of various philanthropic societies, and was among the first promoters of the Volunteer movement. He had the honour of knighthood conferred upon him by Donna Maria da Gloria, and received a grant from the Queen in recognition of his merits.

The Knight of Kerry died on his island of Valentia, on the west coast of Ireland, on August 6. He was the fifth surviving son of the Right Hon. Maurice FitzGerald, 18th Knight of Kerry, who before the Union sat in the Irish Par-

liament, and subsequently till 1833 in the House of Commons, and held office in the Irish Government of Lord Castlereagh and in the Ministry of Mr. Canning and in that of the Duke of Wellington. This 18th Knight was one of the foremost supporters of Catholic Emancipation from the time it was promised by Mr. Pitt till it was finally carried by the Duke of Wellington. Of him the Prince Regent declared emphatically that he was the most agreeable man he had ever known. His son, the nineteenth knight, was born in 1808, and began life in the banking-house, in Dublin, of his maternal grandfather, the Right Hon. David Latouche. He was afterwards Vice-Treasurer of Ireland in the Ministry of Sir Robert Peel. He succeeded his father in 1849, and has ever since resided almost constantly on his island of Valentia, devoting himself indefatigably to the onerous duties of an Irish landlord, the improvement of his estates, and the welfare of an attached tenantry, more particularly in carrying out what has been but too rare in Ireland, the building of substantial homesteads in place of the wretched cabins with which the pernicious middleman system had covered the West of Ireland. The intense interest he took in all questions which had a practical bearing on the progress or prosperity of Ireland was often publicly evinced by letters in the *Times*, in which he deprecated the indiscriminate censure which it is the fashion to cast on all Irish landlords alike—not only on those whose conduct has been indefensible, but also on the far greater number who are energetically and intelligently bearing up against the host of difficulties which the misrule and turmoil of ages and the laxity of their forefathers have bequeathed to them along with the land. He married, in 1838, Julia Hussey, of the Norman family of Hoses, who settled on the promontory of Dingle in the thirteenth century, and leaves four sons and seven daughters. Within a few weeks of his death he had been created by the Crown a baronet. His eldest son, Captain Maurice FitzGerald, of the Rifle Brigade, and Equerry to the Duke of Connaught, succeeds his father in the baronetcy and in his more highly-prized feudal title, which dates back to the thirteenth century, the first Knight of Kerry having been the great-grandson of Maurice FitzGerald, one of the first band of Anglo-Normans who landed in Ireland in the reign of Henry II., and whose

descendants are said to have become "*Hibernis Hiberniores.*"

Francois de Pourtales, whose death occurred at Harvard, Mass., on August 9, belonged to an old Swiss family. He was trained as an engineer, and went to America about the same time as the late Louis Agassiz. He entered the service of the United States Coast Survey, and soon did excellent service in connection with ocean soundings, and the physical geography and natural history of the deep sea. His papers on the Physical Geography of the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf Stream were recognised as of the first order. By the death of his father he succeeded to the title, and received a fortune which enabled him to devote himself wholly to his favourite studies, and to do much in continuing the great work of Louis Agassiz. Appointed keeper of the Museum of Comparative Zoology at Harvard, he devoted himself untiringly to the solution of some of the interesting biological problems connected with deep-sea exploration, and the work he did in this respect entitles him to a high place in science. Count Pourtales was a man of extreme modesty; he had many friends and was universally beloved. He was ever ready to assist brother naturalists, and never showed any of that hot haste to obtain "priority" which is fast becoming the scandal of English science. He was only 57 years of age when he was stricken down in the prime of his powers.

Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe, K.G., died on August 14, at his seat, Frant Court, Tunbridge Wells. Stratford Canning was born of a family distinguished for talents of a high order, and of these he inherited a fair share, to say the least. It is not every Irish or every English family that can start out of the middle rank of merchants in a country town and in less than a century see three of its members raised to the Peerage, and one of its sons Prime Minister. Yet it was so with the Cannings, who less than a century since were plain, honest "merchants," at Garvagh, in the county of Londonderry. Stratford Canning of that place had by his wife, a lady from the county of Cavan, three sons, of whom the eldest, George, of the Middle Temple, was the father of George Canning, afterwards Premier; the second who remained in Ireland, had a son who was raised to the Irish Peerage as Lord

Garvagh; while the third and youngest, also named Stratford, settled in London and became a merchant in the city. His business was not as large as his credit and his heart; he lived in one of the small streets that lead, or led, out of Lombard Street towards the Thames; and there, having married an Irish lady, Miss Mehetabel Patrick, of Summerhill, Dublin, he had born to him a daughter, and also four sons, of whom one, Henry, was for some years Consul-General at Hamburg; another, William, rose to be Canon of Windsor; the third, Charles, fell at Waterloo while acting as aide-de-camp to the Duke of Wellington; and the fourth and youngest was the subject of our present notice, who was born on January 6, 1788. At an early age young Stratford Canning was sent to Eton, at the instance certainly, and possibly by the help, of his cousin, George Canning, who had just entered Parliament and achieved his first success as an orator. He called one morning at Mrs. Canning's house in the city, put young Stratford in his carriage, and drove him off to Eton. Here he obtained a nomination as a "Colleger" or King's Scholar, and went through the entire school course, passing in due time from the "Sixth Form" there to a Scholarship at King's College, Cambridge. Here, also, he was followed by the good offices of his cousin, who took him abroad with him during the Long Vacation, and gave him, or procured for him through a friend, an early insight into the mysteries of diplomacy. Through his cousin's influence, he obtained admission into the diplomatic service; and, after a year spent as a *précis* writer in the Foreign Office, was sent, in 1808, on a special mission to Constantinople, under Mr. (afterwards Sir Robert) Adair, on whose appointment as permanent British Ambassador at that Court a year or two afterwards, he was made Secretary of the Embassy. On returning to England he took advantage of the opportunity of a few months' absence from his professional duties to complete his studies at Cambridge, where he took his Master's degree. In the year 1814, promoted to the rank of Minister Plenipotentiary in Switzerland, he took part in framing the treaty by which the Swiss Cantons were united into the Helvetic Confederation. He was present at the Congress of Vienna in the following year. In 1820 he was entrusted with a special mission to Washington for the purpose of adjusting some differences that had arisen; but on his return he was not

fortunate enough to find the terms of his negotiations ratified by the Government at home. In November, 1823, he was made Plenipotentiary in London for negotiating certain important matters with the United States, and in the following year was sent on a special mission to St. Petersburg, in order to ascertain the designs of the Czar towards Greece, whose cause the chief Powers of Europe were then anxious to maintain against the Turks. In 1825 he went as Ambassador to Constantinople, with instructions to use his influence with the then Sultan Mahmoud in favour of the Greek nation; but, not meeting with success, he came to England on leave, in order to be present at and take part in the Conferences held in London, before it was formally resolved to adopt those measures which led to the battle of Navarino. After that "untoward event," as it has been called, diplomatic relations were of course broken off between England and the Ottoman Porte; and Mr. Canning, on his return to England not long after the death of his illustrious cousin, was rewarded for his diplomatic services by the bestowal of the Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath. He had already—namely, in 1828—been returned to Parliament as one of the members for Old Sarum; he sat, too, for one or two sessions as member for the since disfranchised borough of Stockbridge, Hants (the same which was once represented by the late Lord Derby), supporting, on the whole, Tory measures. On the renewal of diplomatic relations with the Porte, Sir Robert Gordon, brother of Lord Aberdeen, was appointed Ambassador. But in 1831 Stratford Canning was intrusted, as Special Ambassador, with the settlement of the questions pending between the Porte and Greece. He first visited Nauplia, where he attempted, with some success, to compose the disputes of the Greek factions. Arriving in Constantinople in January 1832, he carried on, in conjunction with the French and Russian Ambassadors, the negotiations on Greek affairs, the result being the definitive treaty of July 21, 1832. This work being over, Sir Stratford Canning returned to London, and in 1833 was appointed by Earl Grey to be Ambassador at St. Petersburg in the place of Lord Heytesbury. The Emperor Nicholas, who had no good-will for him, declined, under one pretext or another, to receive him, and after some months of delay he resigned his post. In January, 1835, he

was chosen in the Conservative interest as one of the members for King's Lynn, which constituency he continued to represent as a supporter of Sir Robert Peel in three Parliaments, down to the winter of 1841-42, when he was appointed to succeed the late Lord Ponsonby as Ambassador at Constantinople. It is in this capacity that the name of Sir Stratford Canning will be most widely and permanently remembered, both at home and abroad. He held the post under several different Ministries of opposite politics; and each succeeding Cabinet, in dealing with questions of our foreign policy in the East of Europe, was largely guided by the information and advice which from his vast experience he was able to tender. His ability and authority were chiefly exhibited at the momentous period of the Crimean War. It cannot be doubted that he firmly believed the aggressive disposition of Russia to be the greatest of the evils that threatened the European Continent, and especially the Turkish and Austrian Empires. He would, moreover, hardly have denied that he cherished a feeling of resentment against the Emperor Nicholas. It was to be regretted that he should have left Constantinople for a time in 1852, and returned to England under a belief that the claims of France, Russia, and Austria respecting the Holy Places were amicably adjusted, and that his post should have been occupied by a subordinate, although able and vigilant, officer, when Prince Menschikoff was actually menacing the Sultan in his own palace. But it may be urged that England had no *locus standi* in the dispute until a territorial aggression became imminent, and that the instructions sent out by the Foreign Secretaries of both political parties directed that the representative of England should not officially interfere in the matter. Against all her wishes and interests Turkey was dragged into a most dangerous and difficult dispute between the Great Powers, who founded their respective claims on contradictory documents. Turkey, a Mohammedan Power, was called on to decide a quarrel which involved ostensibly Christian religious feeling, but which, in reality, was a vital struggle between France and Russia for political influence in the Turkish dominions. The Sultan was required to be a judge and to decide this dispute; but, so far from having judicial independence and immunity, he was coerced and humiliated before his subjects by menaces; he was

compelled to give contradictory and dishonouring decisions, and was then accused of perfidy by the very persons who had forced him to adopt them. When, by means of the adhesion of the Emperor Napoleon, the co-operation of England and France for the preservation of Turkey became a possibility, our Ambassador repaired to his post. The British fleet had been called up to Besika Bay by Sir Hugh Rose, and the famous war followed after no long period. All through it the influence of Lord Stratford was felt, encouraging Turkey, advising his own Government, acting quietly but energetically on the neutral Powers. To him in an eminent degree is due the act of Austria in occupying the Danubian Principalities, which decided the main military question, checked the Russian advance on the Balkans, allowed the Allies to turn their arms against the Russian stronghold of Sebastopol, and, last, not least, set a rivalry, if not an enmity, between the St. Petersburg and Vienna Governments which may still produce momentous consequences. In the early part of the year 1852, during Lord Derby's first tenure of the Premiership, Sir Stratford Canning was raised to the dignity of the Peerage as Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe. This title he chose, somewhat fancifully as many will think, in order to assert his hereditary relationship to William Canning, or Canynge; the pious and munificent merchant and Mayor of Bristol, of the reign of Edward IV., who late in life becoming a priest founded with his wealth the "College" at Westbury-on-Trim, in Gloucestershire, and also either founded or completed the foundation of the noble church of St. Mary Redcliffe in Bristol. Lord Stratford was twice married—firstly, in 1816, to Harriet, daughter of the late Mr. Thomas Raikes, who died in the following year; and secondly in 1827, to Elizabeth Charlotte, daughter of Mr. James Alexander, of Somerhill, near Tunbridge, Kent, a cousin of the late Earl of Caledon. By his latter marriage his Lordship had four children—three daughters and an only son, who died in the early part of 1878, so that the title has become extinct. Quite late in life his lordship published, besides a volume of poetry, two small works of a religious character, entitled, "Why I am a Christian" and the "Greatest of all Miracles," and also a drama on the subject of King Alfred in the Isle of Athelney. He also contributed three or four essays on political and other questions to peri-

odical literature when he was already a nonagenarian. His last poetical composition consisted of some spirited verses on the disaster of Isandlana.

Miss Lillian Adelaide Neilson died on August 15, in Paris. It seems that on the previous evening, while driving in the Bois de Boulogne, she suddenly became ill. Two friends who were with her at the time took her to a restaurant, but the efforts made to restore her were of no avail. The *post-mortem* examination showed that the cause of her death was rupture of an aneurism. Miss Neilson was born at Saragossa about thirty years ago. Her father was a Spanish artist, her mother an Englishwoman. In or about 1860, during a visit to Paris, she witnessed a performance at the Théâtre Français of "Phèdre," and from that moment determined to become an actress by profession. In her 15th year she appeared at the Margate Theatre as Julia in the "Hunchback," a character with which her name was long to be associated. Her acting seems to have been well spoken of, for only a few weeks later she was invited to play Juliet at the Royalty Theatre in London. Immature as the performance was, it displayed high promise, and among those who encouraged her to persevere was no less a person than Lady Becher (Miss O'Neill). The *débutante* wisely allowed no opportunity of acquiring experience of the stage to escape her, and such opportunities were afforded by the production at the Princess's of the "Huguenot Captain" and "Lost in London," at the Lyceum of "Life for Life," at the Gaiety of "A Life Chase" and "Uncle Dick's Darling," and at Drury Lane of "Amy Robsart" and "Rebecca." The little leisure which these engagements left her was filled by performances in provincial theatres. In the autumn of 1872, after playing Juliet at the Queen's Theatre with considerable effect, Miss Neilson went to America, and there added to her repertory the characters of Beatrice, Rosalind, and Isabella in "Measure for Measure." Throughout her tour beyond the Atlantic she was received with what must be termed enthusiasm. "I thank you," Mr. Longfellow wrote to her, "for your beautiful interpretation of Juliet. I have never in my life seen intellectual and poetical feeling more exquisitely combined." Miss Neilson's next engagement in London was at the Haymarket, where she appeared as the heroine of Mr. Tom

Taylor's "Anne Boleyn." This engagement ended, she reappeared in America, to be received with even greater warmth than before. The members of the Richmond Legislature, seeing her in the ladies' gallery, found it impossible, it is said, to go on with their business. In the winter of 1877-78 she played Viola at the Haymarket, and in the spring of last year was engaged to impersonate Isabel of Bavaria in the "Crimson Cross" at the Adelphi. Next came a series of performances at the Haymarket, chiefly of Shakesperian characters. In the autumn of 1879 she went on another American tour, still meeting with constant favour. Miss Neilson deservedly occupied a prominent place among the actresses of her time. It is true that she never entirely acquired the art of concealing art, but to rare physical advantages she united many of the best histrionic qualities. Rosalind and Beatrice found in her a not inadequate representative, and it has been justly remarked of her Juliet that in the closing scenes it attained a tragic elevation that seemed less art than inspiration.

Ole Bull, the eminent violinist, died on August 17, at Bergen, in his 71st year. Ole Bornemann Bull was born at Bergen, in Norway, on February 5, 1810. From his earliest years he showed a great talent and passion for music, but this was discouraged by his father, who destined him for the Church. Accordingly, he was sent, at the age of 18, to the University of Christiania, where he devoted himself to music rather than theology. He was finally dismissed for having taken temporary charge of the orchestra at one of the theatres. The desire to improve his musical education took him to Cassel, where Spohr heard him play the violin, and expressed a very unfavourable opinion of his style. For a time he read law at Göttingen, but before long turned once more to music, which he studied at Minden. A duel in which he was engaged caused him to leave Minden for Paris, where he was reduced to great misery. He had no home and no resources; even his violin was stolen from him. After wandering about for three days and nights, he finally threw himself into the Seine, but was rescued, and almost immediately found a benefactress in the widow of a Count Faye, who received him into her house, and eventually gave him her granddaughter in marriage. He speedily gained a con-

siderable reputation as a violinist in Paris, and in the course of a few years became a rich man. He visited Switzerland and Italy, and was received everywhere with great applause. In 1838 he returned with his wife to Bergen, and bought and settled upon an estate there. Besides making successfully the tour of all the European countries he went over to the United States,—once in 1843, again in 1852, and a third time in 1869. On the second visit he endeavoured unsuccessfully to found a Norwegian colony on 120,000 acres of ground which he bought in Potter county, Pennsylvania. He was equally unsuccessful as lessee of the Academy of Music at New York, where he produced the Italian Opera. On his third visit he was married a second time, his first wife having died some years previously, to a lady in Wisconsin. At his home at Bergen he built a theatre, and endeavoured to establish in Norway national schools of literature and art. He formed his style as a violinist upon that of Paganini. His style was described by Spohr, when he heard him in his youth at Cassel, as *bizarre*, and it retained that character throughout his life.

Mrs. Charles Kean died on August 20, at her residence, Queensborough Terrace, Bayswater, in her 74th year. From the time of her husband's death, which occurred in 1868, she had lived in retirement, but more than once testified a warm interest in the fortunes of the poetic drama. The daughter of Mr. Tree, an official at the East India House, Mrs. Kean was born in 1806. An elder sister, Maria, won fame as an acting vocalist, but in 1826, on her marriage with Mr. Bradshaw, sometime M.P. for Canterbury, she withdrew from the stage. In the following year Ellen Tree, the future Mrs. Kean, appeared at Drury Lane as Violante in the "Wonder," Mrs. Davison, herself an exquisitely effective representative of the character, consenting to appear on the occasion in the subordinate character of Flora. The *débutante*, who had previously gained experience in the provinces, soon achieved success, especially in a piece called the "Youthful Queen." Next came an engagement at Covent Garden, where, among other parts, she played Romeo to the Juliet of Miss Fanny Kemble, Françoise de Foix in "Francis L.," and Lady Townley in the "Provoked Husband." In 1832 we find her at Dublin as Julia in the "Hunchback," supported by no less a person

than the author as Master Walter. Knowles, indeed, thought highly of the young actress, as may be inferred from the fact that he selected her to play Mariana in the "Wife." Her next step was to accept an engagement in a company organised by Mr. Barham Livius to give a series of performances at Hamburg. In this company she met her future husband, at that time passing through his novitiate as an actor. The young players wished to marry each other there and then, but at the instance of the lady's friends, who were not unmindful of the failure of his youthful essay at Drury Lane seven years previously, and probably feared that his ambitious dreams were not to be realised, they agreed to postpone the match. In 1836, after creating great effect at the Haymarket by a performance of the hero of Talfourd's "Ion," Miss Tree made a tour of the United States, and was easily induced to prolong her stay there for three years. Not long after her return to London she accepted an engagement at Covent Garden to play the Countess of Eppenstein in Knowles's "Love," which appears to have been written for her, and which, thanks in great measure to her acting, had what in those days was regarded as a long "run." In the somewhat unthankful part of Ginevra in Leigh Hunt's "Legend of Florence," produced at the same theatre in 1840, she created a powerful effect by the burst of anguish—"Good God! what have I done?" Mr. Kean, by dint of untiring industry, now occupied a prominent place in his profession; and in the beginning of 1842, at Dublin, Miss Tree became his wife. It is unnecessary to give details of the engagements of the newly-married pair during the next nine years, further than to state that in 1842 they appeared in a round of poetic plays at the Haymarket, then under the management of Mr. Webster, and that in 1846 they paid a visit to America, where they appeared for the first time in the "Wife's Secret." In 1850, when Mr. Kean entered upon the management of the Princess's Theatre, the most important period of Mrs. Kean's career may be said to have commenced. Hitherto she had been the Rosalind and the Viola of the stage; henceforward her name was to be associated with characters of a more matronly type. In the course of Mr. Kean's tenure of power she appeared as Constance, Katharine of Arragon, Hermione, Lady Macbeth, and Elvira. The splendour with which every piece was put upon

the stage could not fail to divert the attention of the audience from the acting, but in spite of this disadvantage Mrs. Kean perceptibly added to her laurels by what she accomplished in her new *emploi*. Nevertheless she did not entirely abandon youthful characters; in the "Merchant of Venice," for instance, she played Portia, and in "Sardanapalus" Myrrha. It is only just to add that the good taste and artistic completeness which distinguished her husband's revivals were due in no slight measure to her influence. Mr. Kean's *régime* at the Princess's was brought to a close in 1859 with performances of "Henry V.," in which Mrs. Kean played the Chorus with statuesque grace. The only other incident in her life calling for notice is the tour which about fifteen years ago she made with her husband in America and Australia. Mrs. Kean is not to be numbered with the greatest votaries of the English stage, but her acting was distinguished by considerable power, tenderness, and refinement.

Freiherr von der Pfordten, long the champion of what is known as the 'Trias' idea in German politics, died on August 23, aged 69. In the days which marked the entrance of Herr von Bismarck on the European stage, he had energetically opposed the notion of any State acquiring the hegemony of the confederated Powers, contending that Austria, Prussia, and the Midland States should, as three constitutionally equal members, be appointed to guide the national destinies and represent German unity abroad. None but a German professor could enunciate such impracticable principles, and Freiherr von der Pfordten had held the Chair of Roman Law successively at Würzburg and at Leipzig. Born in September, 1811, he had begun his career and acquired no slight reputation for energy as an academic teacher. He was invited to become Saxon Minister of Public Worship, a post he resigned when, soon afterwards, he was offered an appointment as Bavarian Minister of the Royal Household and of Foreign Affairs. And now began his efforts to conquer for the Middle German States a larger and more equitable share of recognition in the Bund and in the reunified Fatherland, which was the universal dream of the time throughout Germany. His whole policy was reactionary, and he clung tenaciously to his scheme, which he was the better able to bring under notice when sent to Frankfort as Bavarian representative

at the Diet in 1859, shortly after the then comparatively unknown Herr von Bismarck had left to acquire diplomatic experience in St. Petersburg and Paris before taking the helm of affairs at Berlin. The events of 1864 gave a rude shock to Herr von der Pfordten's finespun politics and Trinitarian theories. In 1866 they were shaken all to pieces. In connection with the Schleswig-Holstein Question he had hoped to be sent as envoy to the London Conference, but his doctrinairism was known and his succession theories were suspected, so it was thought safer to re-intrust him with the portfolio of Foreign Affairs in Munich. All the main efforts of his life were nullified by the battle of Königgrätz, and the discomfited Minister saw himself compelled to sign the peace of Nikolsburg and later on the secret treaty by which Bavaria pledged herself to place her army at the disposal of Prussia in the event of the North-German Confederation being assailed by alien foes, an act which Württemberg and Baden likewise imitated, undetected by the ambitious visionary of the Tuileries, and which was really the coping-stone of the slowly and painfully raised Imperial edifice that received consecration four years later in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles. Having, therefore, become exceedingly unpopular, Von der Pfordten in 1866 retired into private life to brood in bitterness over the failure of his cherished schemes, and to try to reconcile himself, presumably, to the logic of accomplished facts.

General Albert J. Myer, of the Signal Service in the United States, who for twenty-two years rendered invaluable service to that country in observing and reporting approaching changes in the weather, died in Buffalo, on August 24, in the 52nd year of his age. General Myer became identified with the Signal Service when he was only 30 years old, and since then his name has become synonymous with that of this important service, and he has been familiarly known as "Old Probabilities." His services were equally valuable in peace or in war. In 1854 he entered the army as an assistant-surgeon. He was assigned to special duty in the Signal Service in 1858, and remained on that duty till 1860, when he was made chief signal officer of the army, with the rank of major. He was not the originator of the idea of making use of the telegraph for conveying information in regard to the weather—

that honour is generally by Americans conceded to the late Professor Henry, of the Smithsonian Institution—but General Myer took up the idea, developed and expanded it, and brought it into successful use. It is stated that 50 per cent. of the "probabilities" are fully verified, and 25 per cent. verified in part. The failures are only 25 per cent.

Elijah Walton, a popular artist, died on August 25, aged 47, at his residence on Bromsgrove Lickey, near the home of his early days. An art student at eight years of age, he won a prize medal for a work in oil at 10; at 14 he exhibited his first work at the Royal Academy and sold it; and at 18 he had finished his studies in the Life School with abundant credit. Mr. Walton then went abroad, to the East, and afterwards to the Alps, and repeated his tours through these regions frequently during his subsequent artistic career, the results being presented to the public in the well-known annual exhibitions of his works, which for nearly twenty years have formed a feature of the London season. In later years he also visited Norway, our English lakes, Wales, the Isle of Wight, and other parts of the coast, making in each case a collection of drawings and paintings of the scenery of the district. In the painting of rocky boulders, in the representation of snow-powdered pines; in the rendering of cloudy sky, flashed with the glow of sunrise or sunset, or cold and gray in threat of coming showers; or in the mist lying heavy in Alpine valley or drifting and curling along the mountain pass, Mr. Walton was almost unrivalled. His style was wholly his own, original and not to be imitated. Mr. Walton was a native of Manchester, but his childhood was divided between Birmingham and Bromsgrove Lickey. He married early, but lost his wife very suddenly, while sailing up the Nile, after only a few months' wedded life. He married a second time after several years' interval, and in about six years was again left a widower.

Serjeant Armstrong, who had for many years been the foremost member of the Irish Bar, died August 26, at his residence, St. Stephen's-green. He was called to the Bar in 1839, and became Queen's Counsel in 1854. At the general election of 1865 he was elected as a Liberal for the borough of Sligo, defeating Mr. Macdonogh, Q.C., who sought

re-election. In 1868 he was not a candidate, and Major Knox was elected, but was subsequently unseated; and at the inquiry into the corrupt state of the borough, Serjeant Armstrong was called as a witness, and acknowledged that he had spent large sums among the electors. Serjeant Armstrong was engaged in every great trial which had been held in Ireland for many years up to a recent period when his health gave way. Always engaged on behalf of the Government in great political cases, and generally opposed to Mr. Butt, towards whom he sometimes displayed a personal bitterness which resulted in painful and exciting scenes in court, he successfully conducted the great Galway county election petition against Major Nolan, and the subsequent one by which Mr. O'Donnell was unseated for the borough of Galway. He was acknowledged to be the ablest cross-examiner at the Irish Bar, but sometimes failed in procuring a verdict for his client by the excess of zeal with which he laboured his case. A remarkable instance of this occurred in the trial of Sub-Inspector Montgomery at Omagh for the murder of his friend, Mr. Glass, and robbery of the bank of which Mr. Glass was cashier at Newtonstewart. The dramatic manner in which the learned serjeant, holding the bill-hook in his hand, showed how the murder must have been committed, and the weapon concealed, produced a great sensation in court, but the jury did not agree on that occasion, and it was reserved for the quieter but more convincing argument of Mr. (now Chief Baron) Pilles, on the third trial, to secure a conviction of the murderer, which was immediately followed by his confession. Some years ago, immediately after a series of trials in which forgeries were imputed to Mr. Sidney, Q.C., which led to that gentleman being disrobed and disbarred, the mind of Serjeant Armstrong, who was opposed to Mr. Sidney at the trials, gave way, and for some time he retired from public life. On his return, however, to the Bar, his great practice came back to him almost immediately, and until about two years ago he was very actively engaged.

Ouray, chief of the Uncompahgre Utes, died in Colorado on August 27. He was probably between 55 and 60 years of age, and is said to have been one of the most remarkable men among the Indians of recent times. For many years after his birth his tribe occupied a vast territory west of the Rocky

Mountains, undisturbed by visits from white men. Now, Utah and Colorado have been carved out of it. Ouray in early life acquired, by intercourse with Mexican traders, a sufficient knowledge of Spanish to be able to converse in it. Since the settlement of Colorado began, he came into close relations with many settlers, and was known as 'the white man's friend.' Though the great bulk of his tribesmen remained wedded to their traditional life, he learnt some of the methods of agriculture, established a farm of 60 acres, on which he raised good crops and cattle, and built a comfortable house which he had well furnished. The Governor of Colorado presented him with a handsome carriage and horses, and a Mexican driver; and the chief's magnificence astonished and rather troubled his fellow-Indians. Ouray visited Washington three times, and was always received with great courtesy and attention. He was a born diplomatist, and quickly learnt the advantage of being able to communicate by writing with the President and Chief of the Indian Department; he even learnt how to sign the letters which he caused to be written. His influence was always employed in the interests of peace, notably last year, when a collision with the White River Utes was imminent on account of the murder of Meeker. He visited Washington last winter to seek redress for the grievances of which his people complained, and appeared before the Committee of Congress on Indian Affairs. Quite recently, he had been negotiating the sale of a large portion of the Ute "reservation" in Colorado to the State authorities; but his death will probably place great difficulties in the way of completing this transaction.

Dr. Philip Jacob Bruun, late Professor of History at the Imperial University of South Russia, at Odessa, died at Slavonta, in Volhymia, on August 28. Born at Friedrichahamn, Finland, in 1804, Philip J. Bruun received his early education at the school attached to the Reformed Church, St. Petersburg, and, having completed a course of studies at the Dorpat University, spent some time at Berlin and Geneva, and also at Paris, where he attended the lectures by Say and Dupin. Returning to Russia in 1829, he was employed in the educational Department under the State, until nominated Adjunct to the Richelieu Lyceum, Odessa, afterwards the Imperial University, where he occupied the chair of Professor of History from 1832 to 1871, when he retired on a pension,

The University of Jena conferred upon him the degree of a Doctor of Philosophy. He was a State Councillor, and Knight of the Order of St. Anne (with the Imperial Crown) of Russia. Professor Bruun was universally esteemed, and well known in literary circles in most countries for his indefatigable and erudite researches, his studies being specially directed to the history and geography of the shores of the Black Sea. He has left numerous writings in the German, French, and Russian languages, with which he was equally conversant, his principal work being "Historical and Geographical Researches on

South Russia, 1852-80" (Odessa, 1879-80), portions of which have been reproduced in French in the Proceedings of the Academy of Sciences, St. Petersburg, and in German, at Odessa. Professor Bruun was the author of a new theory on the identity of Prester John, since controverted by Professor Zarncke, of Stuttgart. His latest labours include the translation into Russian of Irecek's "History of the Bulgarians," and "Notes to Captain Telfer's Edition of the Travels of Johann Schiltberger in the 14th and 15th Centuries," printed in 1879 for the Hakluyt Society.

On August 1, in London, aged 86, **General Sir John Blomfield, G.C.B.** Entered the Royal Artillery in 1810, served in the Peninsula and France; was present at Waterloo. He at various times was in command of the Royal Artillery at Plymouth, Cork, and for some time attached to the mission at Stockholm. On August 2, at Madrid, aged 74, **Juan Eugenio Hartzenbusch**, the Spanish dramatist. The son of a German cabinet-maker, he was originally destined for the priesthood, but on witnessing an opera performance he turned his attention to the drama. He worked at his father's business, however, until he had insured himself a livelihood. His pieces have kept the stage, and he edited the great Spanish poets. In 1847 he became an Academician, and in 1862 Director of the Academy, from which post he retired a few years ago. He was 74 years of age. On August 2, in his yacht off Portland, aged 69, **Edward Ellice**, of Invergarry and Glencuish, Inverness-shire. Represented Huddersfield for a few months in 1837, but from July of that year until the General Election of 1880, he represented the St. Andrew's Burghs. On August 4, at Paris, aged 82, **Lemaire**, an eminent French sculptor, whose best known works are the statues of Kleber, Hoche, and Louis XIV. at Versailles, and the front of the Madeleine in Paris. He was a Bonapartist deputy from 1851 to 1869. On August 4, aged 76, at Paris, **Baudin**, the distinguished chemist. In 1827 he invented the pneumatic pump which bears his name, and claimed to have discovered the means of manufacturing precious stones. On August 5, aged 61, **Lord Clifford** of Chudleigh, an hereditary Count of the Holy Roman Empire. He took no part in politics, leading a very retired life in Somersetshire and Devonshire. On August 6, at Greatham Hall, Durham, aged 75, **Ralph Ward Jackson**, first member for Hartlepool, on its being made a Parliamentary constituency in 1868. Sat as a Conservative until 1874. On August 7, at Chandai, aged 86, **Hyacinthe Firmin Didot**, the senior member of the great publishing firm, to the management of which he succeeded in 1827. On August 8, aged 56, **Major-General Vincent John Shortland**, of the 19th and 24th Madras Native Infantry, and Madras Staff Corps. Served through the Burmese war, 1852-3, and was present at the battle of Pegu. On August 10, at London, aged 75, **Rev. Edward Auriol**, Rector of St. Dunstan's since 1841, and holder of the Prebendal Stall of Eald Street in St. Paul's Cathedral since 1865; a well-known Evangelical preacher, and at one time very popular as such in London. On August 11, in London, aged 56, the **Hon. William Cecil Spring-Rice**, youngest son of the first Lord Monteagle. Educated at Trinity College, Cambridge; called to the Bar in 1848; appointed chief secretary to Lord-Chancellor Cranworth in 1853, in 1861 secretary to the Lunacy Commissioners, and subsequently Registrar in the Court of Bankruptcy. On August 13, at Augsburg, aged 66, **Philip Jakob Spinder**, the head of the German Irvingites. Was ordained a Catholic priest in 1838, was excommunicated for having adopted Irving's opinions in 1856, and married in 1865. On August 18, at Quinville Abbey, Clare, aged 54, **Major-General John Singleton**, late of the Royal Artillery, in which regiment he served with great distinction throughout the Crimean War and Indian Mutiny. On August 20, in Calcutta, aged 68, **Rev. Dr. Wenger**, one of the oldest missionaries in Bengal. He was a Swiss by birth; went out in 1839 as a missionary attached to the Baptist Missionary Society. He completed a translation of the Bible into Sanscrit, and also revised translation into Bengali. The poetical parts of the Old Testament he translated into Sanscrit verse. On August 23, in Berlin, aged 63,

Herr Albert Hoffmann, proprietor and founder of the comic journal, *Kladderadatsch*. Assisted by Dohm Kalisch, Lowenstein, and others, he started, in 1848, the German *Punch*, by which he realised an enormous fortune. His first start in life was as a bookseller's assistant. On August 25, at Brussels, aged 65, **William Ballantyne Hodgson, LL.D.**, Professor of Commercial and Political Economy and Mercantile Law, in the University of Edinburgh. Born 1815, educated at Edinburgh High School and University. From 1839 to 1847 first secretary, then principal of the Liverpool Institute, a member of the Royal Commission on Primary Schools, the author of many works on education and political economy, and Chairman of the Edinburgh Chamber of Commerce. On August 26, at Clifton, Bristol, aged 79, **Mungo Ponton, W.S.**, one of the founders of the National Bank of Scotland. On his retirement from the post of its legal adviser, he devoted himself to science. He discovered the peculiar effect of light on gelatine when treated with bichromates, subsequently applied to the autotype process; obtained a silver medal in 1838, from the Royal Society of Edinburgh, for the model and description of an improved electric telegraph, &c. He was the author of one or two books and of numerous philosophical and scientific papers. On August 30, at Munich, aged 78, **Hermann Anschütz**, one of the most distinguished pupils of Cornelius. His first work, the ceiling of the Odeon at Munich, attracted the notice of the King of Bavaria, by whom he was sent to study the remains of ancient paintings at Naples, Pompeii, &c. On his return he executed a series of encaustic tiles for the Royal palace, after designs by Von Klenze and Zimmermann. He subsequently resumed oil painting, and for forty years was Professor of Painting at the Munich Academy of Fine Arts.

SEPTEMBER.

William Henry Wills died on September 1, at his residence, near Welwyn, Hertfordshire. He was a person well known to members of the literary profession in London, as having been one of that knot of friends of Charles Dickens who helped to establish both the *Daily News* and *Household Words*. He was born in the neighbourhood of Plymouth in the month of January 1810, and had therefore completed his 70th year. He was sub-editor, and practically, to a great extent, the working editor of *Household Words* from its commencement to its close in 1859, and he was also sub-editor of *All the Year Round* from that time until the death of Mr. Charles Dickens. Mr. Wills also took an active part in the establishment of *Punch*, and was the author of several contributions to *Household Words*, which have been published in a separate volume entitled "Old Leaves gathered from *Household Words*." Mr. Wills, who married a sister of the Messrs. Chambers, of Edinburgh, had been placed in the commission of the peace for Hertfordshire soon after settling in that county on his retirement from literary work.

The Rev. Thomas Boys, M.A., late vicar of Holy Trinity, Hoxton, died on

September 2. He was in his 89th year, and had lived for some time in the strictest seclusion. His erudition excited alike the admiration and gratitude of the late Sir George Cornewall Lewis, who, a few weeks only before his own death, discovered the scholar to whom, as he confessed, he was so deeply indebted in his youth for some of the best expositions, grammatical and otherwise, of classical literature. He was the son of Rear-Admiral Thomas Boys, and was born at Sandwich on June 17, 1792; was educated at Tonbridge School and Trinity College, Cambridge. On leaving college he entered the Army, and was attached to the Military Chest in the Peninsula under Lord Wellington in 1813, and cashier at Bordeaux in 1814. At the Battle of Toulouse he was wounded in three places. At the conclusion of the war, Mr. Boys quitted the Army, and was ordained deacon in 1816 and priest in 1822. From 1830-32 he taught Jews Hebrew at the College at Hackney, and in 1836 was Professor of Hebrew at the Missionary College, Islington. Here he revised Diodati's Bible and the Arabic Bible. During the tedious winter that the English commander lay behind the defences of Torres Vedras, Mr. Boys devoted his leisure hours to the task of translating

the whole of the Bible into Portuguese. How skilfully he discharged that self-imposed function may be inferred from the fact that his version of the Scriptures has been adopted as well by the Roman as by the Protestant Church. The late King of Portugal, Dom Pedro I., publicly thanked him for that gift to his people. The minor literary performances of Mr. Boys were numerous. His pen was rarely at rest. For well-nigh half a century he was a frequent contributor to the pages of *Blackwood*. Scattered among its volumes are innumerable reminiscences of the great Peninsular War, and likewise not a few "tales" equally characteristic of the man and the period, many of which have since been republished in a cheaper form. Mr. Boys was a liberal subscriber, also, to the columns of *Notes and Queries* for many years in succession, sometimes under his own and sometimes under an assumed name ("Vedette" among others). His philological excursions in Chaucer are, as every literary antiquary knows, invaluable. In the literature and antiquities of the Jews, for whom he cherished a peculiar regard, he had few equals. Mr. Boys was appointed vicar of Holy Trinity, Hoxton, in 1848.

Dr. Abraham Roth, an eminent Swiss scholar and journalist, died on September 3, at Basel, in his 58th year. Roth was a native of Thurgau, and he received the rudiments of his education at a public school in St. Gall. He afterwards studied philosophy, literature, and history at the Universities of Bonn and Berlin, and notwithstanding a hardness of hearing, which rendered oral instruction almost useless to him, he greatly distinguished himself at those seats of learning. He next went to Paris for the purpose of cultivating his taste for the fine arts and acquiring a more thorough knowledge of the language and literature of France. In 1847 he returned to Thurgau and devoted himself thenceforth to politics and letters, undertook the editorship of the *Thurgauer Zeitung*, and wrote a work on the ancient institutions of his native canton, which procured for him the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from the University of Berne. After the Sonderbund war, Dr. Roth removed to Berne and founded in the Federal capital, with the co-operation of several literary friends, the *Bund*, which under his editorship speedily became one of the leading papers of the Confedera-

tion. After a connection with the *Bund* of fifteen years, he left to establish, under the title of the *Sunday Post*, a journal which should be entirely his own. But Dr. Roth was more a man of letters than of business, and though the articles in the *Post* were written with consummate ability and it enjoyed a fair measure of popular favour, the enterprise did not pay, and in 1871 he abandoned it to assume the editorship-in-chief of the *Schweizer Grenzpost*, a daily paper published at Basel—a position which he occupied with credit to himself and to the satisfaction alike of proprietors and readers until shortly before his early and unexpected death.

The Rev. Charles Fuge Lowder, vicar of St. Peter's, London Docks, died on September 9, in the Austrian Tyrol, whither he had gone for his well-earned holiday. Mr. Lowder (who was about 60 years old) was educated at Exeter College, Oxford, where he took his B.A. degree in 1843 (second-class in Lit. Hum.), and his M.A. degree in 1845. He was ordained deacon in 1843; priest in 1844. Mr. Lowder was for some seven years, soon after its consecration in 1851, curate of St. Barnabas, Pimlico, at the time when that church and the mother church of St. Paul were the centre of the High Church movement, the Hon. and Rev. Robert Liddell being at that time vicar of both churches. It was, no doubt, largely owing to Mr. Lowder's popularity at the West End that he was enabled soon after going to work as Mr. Bryan King's curate at St. George's-in-the-East to establish in Wellclose Square one of the most successful missions in the east of London. There he was joined by the Rev. A. H. Mackonochie and other clergy and laymen. Schools were established and street Arabs brought in long before the days of School Boards; soup-kitchens, Bible and communicant classes, and all kinds of agency for the temporal, moral, and spiritual good of the people were set on foot, and the Danish chapel before many years gave way to the handsome church of St. Peter's. Of that church Mr. Lowder became vicar in 1866. "Father Lowder," as he was called, was very popular after a few years with the rough and degraded population of his parish, and in Ratcliff Highway and in smaller thoroughfares of no good repute he would often go alone where the police were afraid to enter. Mr. Lowder was a popular

speaker at Church Congresses. Bishops Tait and Jackson, though disapproving his ritual, fully appreciated his high character and immense work, and discouraged any prosecution of St. Peter's.

Colonel Sir John Stewart Wood, K.C.B., died at Ryde, Isle of Wight, from an attack of inflammation of the lungs, on September 9. He was in his 68th year. The last surviving son of the late Major J. T. Wood, by his marriage with Hannah Elizabeth, daughter of the late Major-General James Stewart, R.A., he was born in the year 1813, and was educated at the Royal Military College, Sandhurst. He served in the Coorg campaign in 1834, in the Light Company of the 48th Regiment, and subsequently through the Afghan campaigns of 1838-42, in which he acted as aide-de-camp to Sir Robert Sale and adjutant to the 13th Regiment. He took part in the storming of Ghazni and was present at the battle of Jellalabad. He was also in the storming party of the Jagdalak Pass, and at the re-capture of Cabul. He served, too, in the Eastern campaign of 1854-55, as Assistant Adjutant-General to the 3rd Division of the Forces, and subsequently to Head-Quarters, and took part in the battles of the Alma and Inkerman, the capture of Balaklava, and most of the siege operations before Sebastopol. For his Crimean services he obtained the Knighthood of the Legion of Honour, the fourth class of the Medjidie, and the Turkish medal. From 1863 down to his retirement in 1876 he held the Inspector-Generalship of the Royal Irish Constabulary. He was nominated a Companion of the Bath in 1855, and was promoted to the dignity of a Knight Commander of that Order in 1870.

Ebenezer Cowper, of Birmingham—a name once very well known in the printing world—died on September 17, aged 76. The whole of his active life was spent in putting up printing presses in England, Scotland, Ireland, and on the Continent, after the Cowper-Applegarth model, a simplification (invented by his brother and partner, Mr. Edward Cowper) of the Koenig printing machine, so as to adapt it to the purpose of rapid and cheap printing. Thirty years ago there was hardly a newspaper in England whose press was not put up by Mr. Cowper. The first edition of the Waverley novels was printed at Edinburgh off a Cowper machine. At Turin the machine seems

to have been regarded as something very uncanny, and the printer would not use it until a priest had sprinkled holy water most liberally over every bit of the machinery. Mr. Cowper was the erector of the twelve machines at the Imprimerie Royale, in Paris, intended for the printing of the famous Ordinances which cost Charles X. his throne. The machines were all smashed in the Revolution, and Mr. Cowper's life was only saved by a timely warning from a friendly workwoman. He re-erected the machines shortly afterwards at the order of Louis Philippe, and assisted at a great banquet, where Thiers spoke of their erection as a great fact of progress. From Paris Mr. Cowper went to Ireland, and he used to tell with great gusto how at Cork some men brought him a letter bearing the usual insignia of death's head, cross-bones, and coffin, and threatening death if he persisted in his work, and how he quietly nailed up the letter in the hotel coffee-room and went on with his machine. The machine, although superseded as regards newspapers by the Walter Press and others, remains still in use, with slight modifications, as the best contrivance for printing books.

The Right Honourable Sir Fitzroy Edward Kelly, Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer, died on September 17, at Brighton, within a few weeks of completing his 84th year. He was born on October 9, 1796, and was the son of Robert Hawke Kelly, captain in the army, by his marriage with Isabel, daughter of Captain Fordyce, carver and cupbearer to George III. He was one of three children, of whom his brother died young, and the sister predeceased him. His mother lived to the age of 96. Sir Fitzroy Kelly often lamented that he had the advantage neither of a public school nor of a University education. He was in early life distinguished for his skill in amateur theatricals, and his old friend, the late Mr. Planché, speaks in his "Reminiscences" of the strikingly handsome appearance of the Kelly brothers on the stage. He was entered at Lincoln's Inn in 1818, and was the pupil of Abrahams and of Wilkinson, skilful pleaders, of whom the first-mentioned is still remembered. Mr. Kelly practised for some time as a "pleader;" that is to say, he drew statements without appearing in court, and was not called till 1824. He had already gained so much reputation, that the Benchers of his Inn facilitated his call in order

that he might hold a brief which was awaiting him backed with a fee of 100 guineas. At this time he had been three years married to Agnes Scarth, daughter of Captain Mason, of Leith, by whom he had one daughter. Mr. Kelly, on becoming a barrister, joined the old Home Circuit, but left it because he found the work on this busy circuit was prolonged into the vacation, and changed to the Norfolk Circuit for the sake of his vacation. The migration proved a very fortunate one. The Assize was opened at Norwich. Mr. Kelly arrived at that city in the evening, and went to bed briefless. At one o'clock in the morning his clerk came to awake him with the news that an attorney wished to see him with a brief. It was for the defence of a publican and a bill-sticker against whom a charge of libel was preferred. The persons libelled had engaged all the leading counsel on the circuit, and the attorney, wandering in the town at his wits' end, had been recommended by a friend to try the new junior. On a point of practice Mr. Kelly threw the other side over for a time, but the cause came on at Thetford. Here the leader, who had been most feared, could not attend; and Mr. Kelly got the publican off scot free, while the bill-sticker escaped with a slight loss of money. Before he left the court the attorneys for the other side threw to him over the table two retainers, and other briefs followed him at his lodgings. From that time till he left the circuit, owing to the stress of London work, his reputation on the Norfolk circuit was unbounded. He was in all the important cases, beginning chiefly with the Crown Court, and afterwards taking up the civil business. He was engaged in 1828 in the notorious trial at Bury of William Corder, for the murder of Maria Martin, a case in which the murderer had in the interval between the crime and its discovery advertised for a wife, and married a schoolmistress who answered the advertisement. In ten years after his call, an unusually short interval, Mr. Kelly was made King's Counsel, and in the next year, 1835, was elected a Bencher of his Inn. He had by this time established a speciality in mercantile law, which continued to be very profitable to him for a long while. He was in the great revenue cases between the London Docks and the Government, tried under the revenue jurisdiction of the Court of Exchequer, over which he was to preside. He became standing counsel for the East India Company, with

which he had a family connection, his grandfather, Colonel Kelly, having been distinguished in the East Indies and present at one of the sieges of Seringapatam. From the Indian princes who were his clients Mr. Kelly received many and valuable presents of Indian jewels and ornaments. He made unsuccessful attempts to enter Parliament as member for Hythe in 1830 and Ipswich in 1832. He stood for Parliament for Ipswich in 1835, and was elected, but was unseated on petition. In 1837 he was defeated at the poll as declared, but came in next year on petition, and stood again at the general election in July 1841, but was defeated. Two years later, in 1843, he was returned for the town of Cambridge. In 1845 his great friend Sir William Follett, the Attorney-General, died on June 28. Sir Frederick Thesiger (Lord Chelmsford) had long been a rival of Mr. Kelly, who believed himself a better and more successful lawyer than his competitor, but Sir Frederick Thesiger was made Solicitor-General in Sir Robert Peel's Administration before Mr. Kelly held office. Now, upon the death of Follett, Thesiger moved up, and Kelly was appointed to the vacant place of Solicitor-General and knighted. He, of course, resigned his seat in the House, but was returned again for Cambridge. Earlier in the year, at Aylesbury, in March, Mr. Kelly had made his famous defence of Tawell, which gained him the *sobriquet* of "Apple-pip Kelly." Tawell is always described as "the Quaker murderer," but had in fact been expelled from the Society of Friends. He affected, however, the Quaker garb and demeanour, and was generally respected for his piety and wealth; but while he was building schools and establishing savings-banks he poisoned a woman to whom he had been making an allowance. The case is memorable because it was the first in which the telegraph was called in to assist in securing a murderer; it was also noteworthy in Mr. Kelly's history for the ability of his speech and the excessive ingenuity of his defence—namely, that the woman was poisoned with prussic acid from apple-pips which she had eaten. After half-an-hour's deliberation, however, the jury returned a verdict of guilty. Next year, 1846, the Solicitor-General went out with the Cabinet, and Lord John Russell came in. After the dissolution Sir Fitzroy Kelly was not returned, and he did not re-enter Parliament till 1853, when he became Solicitor-General in the

late Lord Derby's Government, sitting for East Suffolk. Sir Frederick Thesiger was still before him as Attorney-General. In 1840 he was with Sir F. Pollock in defending Frost, the Chartist, made the final address to the jury, and obtained a recommendation to mercy for his client. He was in the *Gorham v. the Bishop of Exeter* case, in 1849. At a much earlier period he had (Serjeant Talfourd leading him) won a *cause célèbre* in which Moxon, the publisher, was indicted for blasphemy in issuing the works of Shelley. Another famous case in which Sir Fitzroy Kelly was engaged was the prosecution for abduction against the Wakefields. He was standing counsel to the Bank of England, and was in the insurance cases arising out of the first great fire in Tooley Street. He was in the O'Connell appeal to the House of Lords from the decision of the Irish Courts, and established for himself a considerable reputation for argument in the House of Lords, and especially in peerage cases. Thus in 1848 he won the premier earldom of Scotland in the House of Lords for the Earl of Crawford and Balcarres. In 1853 he obtained a decision in the House of Lords to set aside a clause of forfeiture and let in Lord Alford (in whose right Earl Brownlow succeeded) to the Bridgewater estates. The decision regulated the right to 60,000*l.* or 70,000*l.* a year in land, and Sir Fitzroy Kelly, in obtaining it, induced Lord Lyndhurst, Lord Brougham, Lord Truro, and Lord St. Leonards to reverse the decision of the Vice-Chancellor (Lord Cranworth) and to disregard the opinions of a large number of the Common Law Judges. In the case concerning the right to the Crown jewels of Hanover, Sir Fitzroy Kelly gained them for the father of the king. The great lawsuit between the Protestant and Catholic side of the family in which is the earldom of Shrewsbury and Talbot was won for the Protestant claimant, mainly, it is believed, owing to Sir Fitzroy Kelly's unwearied assiduity and ability. Sir Frederick Thesiger was in the case with him at the beginning, but went up to the House of Lords. The succession was traced from the time of Henry VI., and the case decided not only the titles of Shrewsbury and Talbot in England, but the earldom of Wexford in Ireland, the hereditary rank of Lord High Steward of Ireland, and the right to inalienable estates estimated to be of the value of from 40,000*l.* to 50,000*l.* a year. Lord Dundonald's case was

another in which much was due to Sir Fitzroy Kelly's exertions. When Baron Lionel de Rothschild was seeking admission to Parliament, before the removal of Jewish disabilities, it was at one time intended that he should be heard by counsel. Sir Fitzroy Kelly was early retained by Baron de Rothschild, and came over from France partly in order to be present. The retainer paid was 1,000 guineas; and when it was resolved to dispose of the case in another way, and not to hear counsel at all, the solicitors applied for the return of the fee, and Sir Fitzroy Kelly placed it at the disposal of Baron de Rothschild, who begged Sir Fitzroy Kelly to accept 500 guineas in compensation for the inconvenience to which he had been put, and 100 guineas for his trouble in advising. Sir Fitzroy Kelly did not profit much by the practice before Parliamentary committees, and after some experience he made up his mind that he would not argue before committees of laymen. The London and North-Western Railway Company and the Great Western Railway Company on one occasion left competing retainers of 1,000 guineas at his chambers for his assistance before a committee. They were both returned. His earnings at the bar when he was at the height of his practice amounted to 25,000*l.* a year. None of his contemporaries are believed to have exceeded this amount for purely legal business with the single exception of Lord Selborne. Sir Fitzroy Kelly held his office of Solicitor-General under Lord Derby in 1852, only from March to December, Lord Aberdeen then coming in with Mr. Gladstone as his Chancellor of the Exchequer. When Lord Derby returned to power in 1858 Sir Fitzroy Kelly became Attorney-General, having Sir Hugh Cairns as his solicitor. Sir Frederick Thesiger now became Lord Chelmsford and Lord Chancellor. As Attorney-General Sir Fitzroy Kelly had the task of prosecuting Dr. Bernard for complicity in the Orsini plot, and was entirely unsuccessful. Mr. Edwin James, for the defence, appealed to the feelings of the jury; and the sanctity of the asylum which Great Britain offers to refugees was asserted at some violence to the principles of evidence. Sir Fitzroy Kelly went out with the Government in June 1859. When Lord Derby came in again, in 1866, Sir Frederick Pollock resigned the post of Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer, and Sir Fitzroy Kelly was appointed to the vacant place. He had sat from 1852 to

1866 for East Suffolk. The Lord Chief Baron was made a Privy Councillor in 1866, and one of his last among many public controversies sprang out of his action in this post. The Chief Baron was one of those councillors who sat in the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council which advised the Queen in the Ridsdale ritual case. He dissented from the majority, and afterwards communicated this fact in conversation to an acquaintance. An Order in Council was directed against the divulging of such particulars, and Sir Fitzroy Kelly published a letter, dated November 1878, in which he supported, with great skill and learning, the proposition that the Privy Councillors' oath of secrecy does not apply to judicial matters.

Ram Singh, Maharajah of Jeypore, died at his palace on September 18, at the early age of 47. His succession to the throne of his ancestors coincided with the annexation of Rajpootana to the British possessions in India. The Mahratta wars of the Marquis of Wellesley at the beginning of the present century would have brought the Rajpoot princes under British protection and established peace in Hindostan, but the home authorities were afraid of the responsibility. Lord Wellesley was under a cloud for his supposed ambitious designs, and for some years longer Rajpootana was abandoned to the merciless ravages of the Mahrattas. A later episode reveals the horrible anarchy which prevailed during the first decade of the present century. The Rana had only one daughter, and the Rajahs of Jeypore and Jodhpore fought for her hand. The Rana was helpless to decide between the two candidates, and the whole country was convulsed by the struggle, for nearly all the chiefs of Rajpootana took a part in the war. The Mahrattas and Afghans saw their opportunity, and the progress of their armies through Rajpootana was to be traced by blazing villages and ruined harvests. The Rana implored the British Government for protection. Even the rival princes of Jeypore and Jodhpore joined in the solicitation. But public opinion in England was opposed to all such intervention. A word would have restored peace to Rajpootana, but the British Government declined to interfere. Accordingly the Rana was obliged to purchase the protection of Ameer Khan, by the cession to him of a large territory, and was then compelled by the Afghan to poison his own daughter to put an end to the war.

The young Rajpoot princess accepted her doom and drank the opium; but the tragedy filled Western India with shame and horror. In 1818 all this frightful anarchy was brought to a close by the wars of Lord Hastings. The British Government accepted its position as the paramount Power in India and took the Rajpoot States under its protection, but resolutely refused in any circumstances to interfere in the internal administration, and the results of non-intervention were soon visible in Jeypore. A minor had succeeded to the throne of Jeypore, under the regency of the Queen-Mother, who appointed her paramour to be Prime Minister. After years of turmoil the boy attained his majority, but the British Government refused to interfere. At last the Queen-Mother died and the prince was poisoned by the Minister. In 1835 an English officer was murdered by hired assassins in the streets of Jeypore. Then the British Government interfered. The son of the poisoned prince, an infant of less than two years of age, was placed upon the throne of Jeypore; while a council of regency was formed of five of the principal nobles, under the superintendence of a British political officer. Since then there has been peace and prosperity in Jeypore. The infant prince grew up to be his Highness Maharajah Ram Singh. During the mutinies of 1857 the Maharajah placed his whole available force at the disposal of the British Government, and has in all times proved himself to be one of the most loyal of the feudatory princes in our Indian Empire.

G. F. Grace, the youngest of the famous cricketing family, "the three Graces," died on September 22. So little was known of his illness that, in the face of the fact that he was announced, in conjunction with his elder brothers, to play in a match at Chepstow, the report was believed to be a hoax; but inquiry made at the residence of Dr. W. G. Grace proved that it was quite true. The young cricketer died about midday, at an hotel at Basingstoke, where he had been staying for the last eight or ten days. He was suffering from cold during the great Australian match, in which, it will be remembered, he did not make any show of his usual cricketing form; but on the following three days, the 9th, 10th, and 11th of the present month, he played with success in a match "South of England ~~versus~~ Stroud," running up a score of 44 in his

last innings. On returning to his home at Downend, Gloucestershire, where he lived with his mother, he complained of illness, but it was not sufficiently serious to interfere with his journey to Basingstoke, on his way to London. While there he was confined to his hotel by inflammation of the lungs, which became so severe as the week wore on, that on Sunday or Monday he was visited by his elder brother, Dr. H. Grace, who, in the belief that he was much better, left him on Tuesday the 21st, and returned home. A telegram received on the following morning, however, was of so alarming a character that Dr. W. G. Grace started to Basingstoke at once. He went to Bradford-on-Avon, in Wilts, *en route* to get his brother, Dr. H. Grace, to accompany him, but at the Bradford station they received a telegram informing them that death had taken place. Mr. Fred. Grace was only 29 years of age, and throughout the successful career of the Gloucestershire cricketers his manly and straightforward conduct and genial manners won him not only popularity, but the esteem of hosts of friends.

Miss Geraldine Jewsbury, a lady whose name was well known in the literary world a quarter of a century ago, died in Burwood-place, Edgware-road, on September 23, in the 69th year of her age. She was born at Measham, in Warwickshire, and came to London in 1854. Her first work, "Zoë, or the History of Two Lives," had already appeared in 1845; it was followed by "The Half-Sisters," a tale, in 1848, and "Marian Withers" in 1851. She published "Constance Herbert" in 1855, "The History of an Adopted Child" and "The Sorrows of Gentility" in 1856, and "Right or Wrong," a novel based upon a remarkable French *cause célèbre*, in 1859. She was also the author of a story for children, entitled "Angelo, or the Pine Forest in the Alps." Miss Jewsbury assisted Lady Morgan in the preparation of several of her works for the press.

Dr. Robert Wilms, surgeon-general, died at Berlin, on September 24, in the 58th year of his age. It seems uncertain whether his death should be attributed to the contagion received from a patient about three months ago, and which the waters of Aix-la-Chapelle were powerless to eradicate, or to the sudden bursting of a blood-vessel—the two causes were probably combined—but it is clear to all that Dr. Wilms

in any case has fallen a premature victim to a calling of which it would be difficult to conceive a more assiduous and unselfish member. Born at Arnswalde in 1822, the son of a poor apothecary, he studied in the medical faculty at Berlin from 1842 to 1846, being both the pupil and assistant of Johannes Müller. On the completion of his curriculum he was appointed assistant-surgeon at the Bethany Hospital, and only three years later, having meanwhile given undoubted proofs of his wondrous touch of hand and scientific strength, was promoted to be chief of the surgical board in the same institution. Later on he wandered forth abroad in quest of further perfection in his art, and successively visited the chief hospitals in London, in Paris, and in Vienna. In 1861 he was made a standing member of the Supreme Medical Examination Commission, and then properly commenced that brilliant surgical career in this capital, which soon made his name a household word of happiest omen. He was solicited to undertake long journeys all over the Empire to try his skill on hopeless cases, patients were brought to him from far and near, and despair never seized hold of any family until Dr. Wilms seriously began to shake his head. In the campaigns of 1866 and 1870, too, he was courageously to the front with his instruments and his anæsthetics, and the Iron Cross of the first class was conferred upon him. When the Emperor two summers ago was stricken by the hand of the assassin, the name of Dr. Wilms beneath the often-issued bulletins tended to appease the public excitement. Modest, simple, and kind, Dr. Wilms was equally open to the appeal of rich and poor, his first thought always being the successful exercise of his skill, never the reward it was likely to bring him, and his death is now deplored by all, but most by those who have already profited by his art, or who foresaw the certainty of their having to request his surgical aid.

Admiral Sir John Walter Tarleton, K.C.B., died on September 25, after a long illness, at his residence in Warwick Square, at the age of 69. The son of the late Mr. Thomas Tarleton, of Bolesworth Castle, Cheshire, by his marriage with Frances, daughter of Mr. Philip Egerton, of Pulton-park in that county, and grand-nephew of the late General Sir Banastre Tarleton, G.C.B., he was born at Cloverly Hall, Shropshire, in the year 1811, and entered the Royal Navy in 1824. He obtained a lieutenant

ancy in 1835, was promoted to the rank of commander in 1846, and was nominated a Companion of the Order of the Bath for his services in the Burmese War. He was captain of H.M.S. "Euralyus," screw frigate in 1858, on which the Duke of Edinburgh, then Prince Alfred, saw his first service. He was promoted to flag rank in 1868, and to the rank of Vice-Admiral in 1873, in which year he was also nominated a Knight Commander of the Bath. Sir John Tarleton, who was successively Controller of the Coastguard, a Lord of the Admiralty, and Admiral Superintendent of Naval Reserves, was granted an Admiral's "good service" pension in 1870, and went on the retired list in 1873. He had also received from the Royal Humane Society and from the Congress of the United States medals for saving life. Sir John Tarleton married in 1861 a daughter of Baron Dimsdale, of Camfield-place, Herts.

Edward Mackenzie, of Fawley Court, Henley-on-Thames, died on September 27, at the age of 70. He was the youngest son of the late Mr. Alexander Mackenzie, C.E., of Fairburn, in Ross-shire, and was twice married; first, to a Miss Dalziel, of the Craigs, county Dumfries; and, secondly, to Miss Ellen Mullett, who survives him. He left behind him a colossal fortune, made as a civil engineer and contractor. He was a man of mark in connection with his elder brother, the late Mr. William Mackenzie, and the late Mr. Brassey, in the early and palmy days of the railways, they being the contractors for gigantic works in France and England. They were all men of great administrative powers. Mr. Mackenzie lived for a quarter of a century at Fawley Court, which estate he purchased on retiring from business. The house was filled with valuable paintings and works of art; it was built by Sir Christopher Wren after the demolition of the former mansion during the great Rebellion. Mr. Edward Mackenzie was a magistrate, and deputy-lieutenant of the county of Oxford, and served the office of high sheriff of that county in 1862-3. It has always been considered by those best informed on the subject that in the biographies of Mr. Brassey some injustice has been done to the Mackenzies in attributing to Mr. Brassey alone the skill and indomitable industry and enterprise which were characteristic of the Mackenzies, as well as of Mr. Brassey.

Professor Samuel Stehman Haldeman, an eminent naturalist, and occupant of the Chair of Comparative Philology in the Pennsylvania University, died there on September 28. Professor Haldeman, who was 68 years of age, was born at Columbia, in the State of Pennsylvania. Educated at Dickinson College, he early developed a taste for the study of geology, and pursued it earnestly after taking his degree. In 1836 he was employed in the geological survey of New Jersey, and in the following year in that of his native State. About this period he discovered the *scolithus lineasis*, which was the oldest fossil then known. Dr. Haldeman filled the chair of Natural History in the University of Philadelphia and in a Delaware college, and was Professor of Geology and Chemistry to the State Agricultural Society of Pennsylvania prior to accepting the post which he held at his death. His paper on "Analytic Orthography" gained a prize in England in the year 1858 over the essays of eighteen other eminent writers on language. Professor Haldeman's literary productions in his favourite walks of science are well known to experts and scholars.

Herr Xavier von Reding, Commandant of the Arsenal at Schwytz, died on September 30, at his residence in the canton of that name, at the comparatively early age of 51. The late Herr von Reding belonged to one of the most illustrious families of Switzerland; his father, who survives him, served with distinction under the first Napoleon, and Xavier, who from his youth was destined for the career of arms, entered in 1850 the service of the King of Naples. In command of a company of Chasseurs he fought in Sicily against the Garibaldians. When Francis II. left Naples to its fate, his Swiss troops alone showed a bold front to the enemy, and retreated, fighting desperately, in the direction of Ponte Maddaloni. This position was held by Reding and his company for five hours, and only abandoned when they were overwhelmed by superior numbers, and after they had sustained terrible losses in killed and wounded. A little later he and his Swiss soldiers fought with equal valour, and sustained still heavier losses on the Garigliano. Forced a second time to retreat, they fell back on Gaeta, but, the place being already full of fugitives and troops, they were refused admission, and had to bivouac outside the walls, where, exposed to the

continued attacks of the enemy, they were constrained, after the loss of half their number, to surrender. Reding, refusing to give up his sword, threw it into the sea. After the conclusion of peace the remnants of the battalion were mustered at Rome and dismissed, the ex-King of the Two Sicilies decorating the Swiss captain on the occa-

sion with the Cross of the Order of St. George. Reding then returned to his native land, where, in 1864, he was named Chief Instructor of the Militia of Canton Schwytz and Commandant of the Arsenal, positions which he retained, and whose duties he admirably performed, to the day of his death.

On September 1, at Zante, aged 87, **Samuel Barff**, an eminent merchant and banker associated with Lord Byron in the Greek struggle for independence. On September 6, at Tunbridge Wells, aged 82, **Colonel Wilford**, of the Royal Staff Corps. He had served on the Duke of Wellington's staff at Waterloo. At the close of the Crimean War, he returned to full pay and active duty as Assistant-Commandant and principal Instructor of Musketry at Hythe—a post created by the then Commander-in-Chief Lord Hardinge. He retired in 1862. On September 8, at Aberdeen, **Colonel William John Bolton, C.M.G.** Distinguished himself on various occasions during the Crimean War, and after the battle of Inkerman was mentioned in despatches. In 1870 he was appointed Chief Staff Officer of the Red River Expedition, and on the return of the expedition received the Order of St. Michael and St. George. On September 11, aged 73, the **Duchess Helene of Wurtemberg, Princess of Hohenlohe-Langenberg**, widow of Duke Eugene of Wurtemberg, well known for his connection with the campaign of 1812 and the War of Liberation. On September 13, at Erith, aged 92, **Captain Arthur Morell, R.N.** He entered the Navy in 1801, on board H.M.S. "Doris," served on board the "Polyphemus" in the West Indies, and was present at the taking of Genoa. In 1844 he was appointed Governor of Ascension. On September 14, at Muirshiel, Renfrewshire, aged 48, **Lord Francis N. Conyngham**; entered the Royal Navy in 1846, and served in both the Baltic and Black Sea. In 1857 he entered Parliament as member for County Clare, for which, from 1874–80, he sat as a Home Ruler. On September 17, at Gloucester, **the Rev. Sir John Hobart Culme-Seymour**, Rector of North Church, Berkhamstead, and Canon of Worcester, and Chaplain to the Queen. Born in 1800, educated at Winchester and Exeter College, Oxford, and ordained in 1823. On September 22, aged 72, **Sir Robert Edward Wilmot-Horton**, of Osmaston Hall, Derbyshire, &c., eldest son of Right Honourable Sir Robert Wilmot, M.P., who assumed the name of Horton on his marriage with Anne, daughter and co-heiress of Mr. Eusebius Horton of Catron Hall. On September 23, at Curragh Chase, County Limerick, aged 72, **Sir Vere Edmond Pery de Vere**, eldest son of Sir Aubrey de Vere, the poet. He identified himself with Irish life, and was a frequent exponent in the Press of the hardships from which the Irish poor suffered. On September 23, at Ashford Hall, near Bakewell, **Lord George H. Cavendish**, second son of Mr. William Cavendish. Born 1810, educated at Eton and Trinity College, he entered Parliament in 1834 for the Northern Division of Derbyshire, which he represented without a break down to 1880. On September 24, in London, aged 69, **Dr. John Waddington**, a well-known Congregationalist minister and historian. Born at Leeds and educated at Aire-dale College, he was ordained pastor at Stockport in 1833, and made himself known by his inquiry into the causes of the distress prevalent in that town. He removed to Southwark in 1846. On September 26, at Berlin, aged 77, **Dr. Wilhelm von Hengstenberg**, Head Court Chaplain. In early life he had been tutor to the Princes Waldemar and Aldebert of Prussia. He was preacher at the Domkirche in Berlin, and the representative of severely orthodox Protestantism. On September 29, at Paris, aged 46, **M. Edmond Barbier**, the translator into French of the works of Herbert Spencer and Sir John Lubbock. He was member of the Mutual Autopsy Association, the members of which bind themselves to bequeath their bodies for dissection in the interests of science. On September 30, aged 77, **Freiherr von Dalwick**, one time Minister President of Hesse-Darmstadt, one of the chief adversaries to the political supremacy of Prussia in Germany. In 1854 he concluded a reactionary concordat with Bishop Ketteler, and took an active part in the Particularist struggles which precipitated the war of 1866. In 1871 he was dismissed from the public service.

OCTOBER.

James Coull, who steered the "Shannon" into the memorable action with the "Chesapeake" off Boston Harbour, on June 1, 1813, died at Montrose on October 1. James Coull was born in the fishing village of Ferryden, near Montrose, on January 7, 1788, so that he was in his 95th year. On account of the death of his father, and the poverty of his mother, James started in life as a cabin-boy in one of the local vessels at the early age of six years. He was afterwards indentured as an apprentice in the brig "Concord," of Montrose, in the year 1801, and while lying at Copenhagen was pressed for the Navy the same year. James was sent on board the "Centaur," seventy-four guns, commanded by Captain Broughton, in which vessel he first saw active service, having been at the bombardment of Copenhagen on April 2, 1801. After the Treaty of Amiens, James received his discharge, and was sent on board his old ship to finish his apprenticeship, which he completed, and then sailed as an A.B. in another local vessel. While lying at the Nore in this ship, he was again pressed for the navy, and again sent on board the "Centaur," where he was shortly afterwards appointed assistant quarter-master, and was present in this vessel at the battle of Trafalgar on October 21, 1805. From this time onward he was retained in the service, and by the time he was twenty-one was a circumnavigator. His most notable engagement was the tussle of the "Shannon" with the "Chesapeake" off Boston Harbour on June 1, 1813, which only lasted fifteen minutes, from the firing of the first gun to the running up of the Union Jack over the Stars and Stripes. Coull, being then a petty officer and a volunteer from the "Actæon," had the honour of steering the "Shannon" into action; and while doing so he received a musket-ball in his left wrist, which traversed his arm and came out at the elbow. Coull, however, stuck to his post, and after the vessels had got entangled, by the "Shannon's" anchor catching hold of the "Chesapeake," he formed one of the boarding party led by Captain Broke, receiving a severe scalp wound while scrambling on board. The scalp wound was quickly patched up, but owing to the bullet wound Coull was

invalided in 1814, and finally the arm was taken off at the elbow in 1816. Coull was then discharged on a pension of 16*l.* per annum, which was augmented some fourteen years ago by 13*l.* 16*s.*, so that he had been a pensioner for the unusually long period of sixty-six years. Although thus disabled he sailed for twenty years as cook in the whalers belonging to the port of Montrose, besides acting in the same capacity for some fourteen voyages across the Atlantic in sailing vessels. He was married in early life, but left no children. His remains were interred at Montrose, with full military honours, by detachments from both branches of the service, on the 4th instant, the coffin being borne to the grave on the shoulders of the Coast Guard, and the farewell volley fired by the sergeants composing the permanent staff of the Forfar and Kincardine Artillery Militia. As an additional mark of respect, the shipping in the harbour exhibited their colours at half-mast.

Jacques Offenbach, who died in Paris on October 4, was born of Jewish parents at Cologne, June 21, 1819, and received his first musical education from his father. In 1835 he went to the Conservatoire of Paris, where he completed his studies, devoting himself chiefly to the violoncello, on which he was a proficient but by no means eminent performer. After two years he left the Conservatoire and became a member of several orchestras, finally of that of the Opéra Comique. In 1850 he obtained the post of musical conductor of the Théâtre Français, having previously made himself known by his clever settings of some of La-fontaine's fables. He did not, however, find his true sphere of action till, in 1855, he obtained a licence for a theatre of his own, the famous Bouffes Parisiens. It was for this theatre that he wrote the innumerable burlesque operas and operettas to which he owed his wide-spread fame. However much one may deprecate his style of art, it would be vain to deny that Offenbach had a peculiar gift of his own. As far as that most serious of arts—music—can be turned to broadly comical account, he most certainly achieved the

task. With this power he combined a certain piquancy of rhythm and of phrasing, as individual to him as it was, in a different sense, nationally French. For, curiously enough, the native of Germany was more French than the French themselves, and none of his numerous Parisian imitators has ever been able to rival Offenbach at his best. In this respect he resembled Gluck and Meyerbeer, who were equally attracted by an, of course, infinitely higher phase of French genius, and brought the grand opera to a pitch of perfection never attained by a French composer. In Offenbach's earlier operas, more especially in his *chef d'œuvre*, "Orphée aux Enfers," there are touches of genuine fun at which even the gravest critic cannot fail to smile; at the same time one frequently discovers glimpses of a genuine melodic power. "Le Chant de Fortunio" to Alfred de Musset's words is a lovely tune, and the "Dites lui" from "La Grande Duchesse de Gérolstein" has a peculiar charm which even the vulgar way in which it is generally rendered on the stage cannot wholly destroy. In his later works Offenbach began to repeat himself; his wit became coarse, and his vein of melody was exhausted. The best among his numerous works are "Le Chant de Fortunio," "Orphée aux Enfers," "La Grande Duchesse," and, at some distance, "La Belle Hélène." These alone need be mentioned here. The libretti chosen by Offenbach are too frequently disfigured by a frivolous tone, which occasionally degenerates into gross indecency. His success belongs essentially to the Second Empire, which gave him considerable wealth, and decorated him with the red ribbon of the Legion of Honour. It is very doubtful whether any of his works will survive, but his name will be remembered as a curious phenomenon in the history of art and civilisation. M. Offenbach's end was sudden and unexpected. During the afternoon he was present at the reading of the "Cabaret des Lilas" for the Variétés. In the evening, on returning home, he felt unwell. The gout from which he had long been suffering ascended to the heart, and he died a few hours afterwards.

William Lassell, an astronomer, to use the words of Sir John Herschel, "who belongs to that class of observers who have created their own instrumental means—who have felt their own wants and supplied them in their own

way," died on October 4, in his 82nd year. In the history of reflecting telescopes the name of Lassell must rank with those of Herschel and of the late Lord Rosse, whether we consider the genius and perseverance displayed in their construction or the important discoveries which have resulted from their use. Mr. Lassell was born on June 18, 1799, at Bolton, in Lancashire. In about the year 1820 Mr. Lassell began to construct reflecting telescopes for himself. He began simultaneously with a Newtonian of 7-inch diameter and a Gregorian of the same size. He afterwards made a Newtonian of 9-inch aperture of very great excellence. With this instrument he detected, independently and without previous knowledge of its existence, the sixth star in the trapezium of Orion. This telescope was mounted equatorially on a plan devised by himself, and may be said to form an epoch in the history of the reflecting telescope. In 1844 Mr. Lassell conceived the bold idea of constructing a reflector of 2-ft. aperture and 20-ft. focal length, to be mounted on the same principle. It was in the preparation of the speculum for this instrument that he was led to contrive a polishing machine for imitating as closely as possible those movements of the hand by which he had been accustomed to produce perfect surfaces on smaller specula. With this instrument he discovered in September 1847, the satellite of Neptune, and in September 1848, simultaneously with the late Professor Bond, in America, he discovered Hyperion, an eighth satellite of Saturn. In 1851, after long and careful search, he discovered two additional satellites of the planet Uranus (Umbriel and Ariel), interior to the two discovered by Sir William Herschel in 1787. In 1852 Mr. Lassell took out this telescope to Malta, and observed there through the winter of that year. Mr. Lassell's energy and zeal in the cause of science did not permit him to remain content with this magnificent instrument. His last work was a much larger telescope, 4-ft. in aperture and 37-ft. focus, mounted equatorially. This grand instrument was erected in 1861 at Malta, and the work done with it during the next four years is fully described in volume thirty-six of the "Memoirs of the Royal Astronomical Society." This work consists of numerous observations of the satellite of Neptune and the satellites of Uranus, observations of nebulae and planets, and a catalogue of the places of 600 new nebulae dis-

covered with this instrument at Malta. After his return from Malta Mr. Lassell purchased an estate near Maidenhead, and erected in an observatory his equatorial telescope of 2-ft. aperture. Mr. Lassell's experience in repolishing his 4-ft. mirrors suggested to him some alterations in his polishing machine. After his return he was able to carry out these experiments in a workshop erected at Maidenhead, and succeeded in constructing an improved form of polishing machine, which is described in the "Transactions of the Royal Society" for 1874. In 1839 Mr. Lassell was elected a Fellow of the Royal Astronomical Society, received its gold medal in 1849, and in 1870 was elected its president. He became a Fellow of the Royal Society in 1849, and received one of the Royal medals in 1858. Among other honours conferred upon him may be mentioned an honorary degree from the University of Cambridge, and the honorary Fellowships of the Royal Societies of Edinburgh and Upsala.

Colonel Sir William Lockyer Merewether, K.C.S.I., Member of the Council of India, died suddenly on October 4. His entrance into military life was as a second lieutenant in the Bombay Army in March 1841. He served in Scinde with the 21st Regiment of Native Infantry in 1842 and 1843, and was present at the battle of Hyderabad. Two years later he fought in the campaign in the Southern Mahratta country, and in 1847 he was with the Scinde Irregular Horse on the frontier of Upper Scinde. Here in command of a party of 132 men Lieutenant Merewether defeated a large body of Boogtees. In 1848 and 1849 he was with a detachment of the Scinde Irregular Horse with the army of the Punjab at the siege and surrender of Mooltan, the battle of Goojerat, and the pursuit and surrender of the Sikhs. He served on the frontier of Scinde from 1847-62, and having got his company in 1856, successfully held the frontier in the stormy year which followed, and crushed an extensive rebellion projected by the Beloochee and Brahoe tribes. In addition to the military distinctions which he had gained, Captain Merewether had shown great prudence and skill in political negotiations. He was made a Companion of the Bath in 1860, and in 1865 was appointed Political Agent and Resident at Aden. In this capacity he was present at the operations

against the Fondeli tribe of Arabs, and having conducted the negotiations with King Theodore from 1866-68, he accompanied Lord Napier's expedition to Magdala. He was appointed Chief Commissioner of Scinde in 1868, and afterwards became a Member of the Indian Council.

General Henry Richmond Jones, C.B., colonel of the 6th Dragoon Guards, died on October 7, at Brighton, in his 73rd year. The son of the Rev. Inigo Jones, of Chobham, Surrey, he was born in 1808, and entered the army as cornet in 1825. He was promoted to a lieutenancy in the following year, and to a captaincy in 1830. He became a major in 1850, lieutenant-colonel in 1851, and colonel in 1854. General Jones commanded the Carabineers (6th Dragoon Guards) in the Crimea, and was present at the battle of the Tchernaya, and the siege and fall of Sebastopol. He also served in the Indian campaign, commanding General Penny's column in the action of the Kirkrowlie; and he commanded a brigade of cavalry at the capture of Bareilly, for which service he was nominated a companion of the Order of the Bath in 1858. He afterwards commanded the left column with Lord Clyde's force in the attack on Benhi Madho's force at Dunderkera, and subsequently the cavalry with Lord Clyde's force in the Trans-Gogra campaign, including the affairs of Magedia, Chundal, and Bankee, taking part in the pursuit of the rebels to the Raptee. His subsequent promotions were—major-general, 1865; lieutenant-general, 1873; and general, 1877. General Jones was appointed colonel of the 14th Hussars in 1869, and of the 6th Dragoon Guards in 1873. He married Miss Harriet Elizabeth Walker, second daughter of Mr. J. N. Walker, of Calderstone, Lancashire.

General Sir Fortescue Graham, K.C.B., died on October 9, at his residence at Stonehouse, Devon, in the 86th year of his age. He was the son of the late Lieutenant-Colonel Richard Graham, by his marriage with Catherine, daughter of Captain Philip Walsh, R.N., and was born at Tittinhull, Somerset, in 1794. He entered the Royal Marine Artillery in 1808, and obtained his lieutenancy in 1825. He served with the army in the battalion formed of the Marines of the squadron at the taking of Walcheren, in 1809. He also served in the first battalion in Portugal, and in the operations on the north coast of Spain, at the

taking and defence of Castro. He afterwards proceeded with the battalion to America, where it was brigaded under Sir Sydney Beckwith, and was present at the attack upon Norfolk and the taking of Hampton and several small places. Subsequently, proceeding to Canada, he was sent with a detachment in command of a division of gun-boats to attack a battery at the head of Lake Champlain. Having returned with the battalion to the coast of America, he was present at the attack and taking of Fort Point Peter, and the town of St. Mary's in Georgia. Shortly after his promotion to a captaincy, in 1837, he exchanged to join the battalion in Spain. He was afterwards present at the demonstration before Nankin, in China, and he subsequently commanded the Royal Marine battalion in the brigade under General Jones, acting in conjunction with the French army at the bombardment and surrender of the forts at Bomarsund, Aland Isles, in 1854. From 1854 to 1857 he served as aide-de-camp to Her Majesty. He became major and lieutenant-colonel in 1851, and was promoted to colonel in 1854, major-general in 1857, lieutenant-general in 1865, and general in 1866. He was nominated a Companion of the Order of the Bath in 1855, and was advanced to the dignity of a Knight Commander of that order in 1865. He was Commandant of the Portsmouth division of the Royal Marines from 1855 to 1857, was appointed colonel of the Marine Artillery division at Portsmouth in 1866, and retired in 1870. Sir Fortescue Graham was twice married—first, in 1828, to Caroline, daughter of Mr. George Palliser; and secondly, in 1863, to Jane, daughter of the late Captain Lowcay, and widow of Admiral Blight, but was again left a widower in 1866.

Sir William Linton, of Skairfield, near Lockerbie, Dumfriesshire, whose death occurred on October 9, at his residence in Scotland, after a very short illness, from an attack of apoplexy, was the eldest son of the late Mr. Jabez Linton, of Hardrigg Lodge, Dumfriesshire, by his marriage with Jane, daughter of Mr. William Crocket, of Grahamshill, in the same county. He was born in the year 1801 at Kirkpatrick Fleming, in Dumfriesshire, and was educated at Edinburgh University. During the summer vacations of his attendance at the University he served for four successive years as surgeon in a whale ship in the Arctic regions. He entered the Army Medical Department in 1826, and

took his M.D. degree at Glasgow in 1834. He became staff surgeon of the first class in 1848. He served in Canada, the Mediterranean, the West Indies, Turkey, the Crimea, and India; he was Deputy Inspector-General of the First Division of the Army in the Crimea, was present in every action until the fall of Sebastopol, and had the care of the great hospital in Scutari in 1855 till the British forces came home. He was appointed Inspector-General of Hospitals in 1857, and Inspector-General of Hospitals in India in the following year. He was appointed an honorary physician to Her Majesty in 1859, and retired from active service in 1863. He was nominated a Companion of the Order of the Bath in 1856, and was advanced to the dignity of a Knight Commander of that Order in 1865.

Marchese Giovanni Pietro Campana, whose excavations among the remains of the cities and cemeteries of Etruria, some twenty-five years ago princes were glad to have the opportunity of visiting, and whose museums in his house in the Babuino and his villa near St. John Lateran were among the most interesting sights of Rome, died on October 10, at the age of 72 years. While still a young man he was recognised as one of the most distinguished archaeologists of the day; but his love for the science and his intense passion for collecting became also the cause of his ruin. Appointed director of the Monte di Pietà by Gregory XVI., he availed himself of the faculty of that establishment to lend money on works of art and objects of antiquity by borrowing largely, in his own person, on the security of the contents of his museums. Accused of malversation, he was brought to trial and condemned to a long term at the galleys, for which imprisonment was substituted. The justice of this sentence was the subject of considerable discussion at the time. It was asserted that Gregory XVI. had granted Campana permission to borrow money in his private capacity on the security held, and that he was the victim of the enmity of Cardinal Antonelli, who desired to place, as in fact he did, one of his brothers at the head of the Monte di Pietà, as he had obtained for another the direction of the Banco Romano. It was admitted that Campana had certainly abused whatever privileges may have been granted him by absorbing to his own use a disproportionate share of the capital of an establishment intended for far wider circulation; but the sen-

tence was considered exceptionally severe for the reason that no really fraudulent intentions could be imputed to Campana, and that his magnificent collection, immediately dispersed at a reckless sacrifice, realised a large sum in excess of that he had borrowed. The great majority of the inestimable gems of these collections were, on their ruthless dispersion, bought by the Russian and French Governments, Russia securing the larger share. After remaining for some years in the prison of San Michele, where he was attended with most exemplary devotion by his English wife, he was finally liberated at the urgent intercession of Napoleon III.

Cardinal Bartolomeo Pacca, who died on October 14, had attained the high dignity of a Prince of the Church by that steady advancement in the Prelature of the Curia which, as distinguished from the priesthood, leads direct to the Sacred College. He was born at Benevento on February 25, 1817, a member of the family of the Marquises della Matrice of that city. Among the generations of his house many bishops can be counted. His paternal uncle was Pius VII.'s celebrated Pro-Secretary of State and companion in exile, and thus his career in the prelature was from the first made easy. Entering the judicial department of the State, he became vice-president of the Criminal Court of the Governor of Rome. After the changes made in that Court by Pius IX., he was appointed to the tribunal of the Consulta, which adjudicated on political offences, and thence passed to the Court of Cassation. But Monsignor Pacca had been gifted by nature with the polish of the courtier rather than with the severity of the judge, and at the age of 42, leaving the bench for the Pontifical antechamber, Pius IX. conferred upon him the office of *Maestro di Camera*, from which he was promoted six years afterwards to the *Maggiordomato*, and thence, as a matter of course, to the Sacred College. Reserved "*in Petto*" at the Consistory of March 15, 1875, his creation was declared at that of the 17th of the following September. He was an example of the perfect ecclesiastical courtier, and in fulfilment of his duties towards those admitted to the Pontifical presence, as at all times, he combined the most exquisite courtesy with the distinguished bearing of a polished gentleman. To recruit his declining health Cardinal Pacca had gone with

Cardinal Nina to spend the autumn months at the Monastery of Grotto Ferrata, where he was struck with apoplexy on the evening of October 13, and died in a few hours.

Baron Pietro Ereole Visconti, whose death took place on October 14, was for many years one of the most prominent figures in the archaeological world of Rome. Great-nephew of the celebrated Ennio Quirino Visconti, and nephew of the architect of the same name, he early applied himself to the study of all that had been written on the archaeology and history of his native city, and it was in imparting the fruits of those studies and expounding what others had written, rather than for independent researches, that he was particularly distinguished. He usually divided his course of lectures into four parts—iconology, iconography, epigraphy, and numismatics—one to each year, teaching meanwhile the history and topography of the city by such long digressions as the branches of the four great divisions of his subject suggested. The antithesis of the dry-as-dust antiquarian he combined with the learning of a profound archaeologist, all the polish of a practised courtier, and the brilliancy of a ready wit. He was the life and soul of those little gatherings in the Vatican library when the Pope Pio Nono, after the audiences of the morning, sat, surrounded by distinguished members of the Pontifical Court, chatting over the events of the day. Among the more important discoveries made under Visconti's directions as Commissioner of Antiquities may be mentioned the temple of Cybele and Atys and other valuable results of the extensive excavations at Ostia; the guard-house of the seventh cohort of the *Vigiles*, near the Basilica of Saint Chrysogono; that portion of the ancient quays on the banks of the Tiber where the marble was landed and many hundred blocks lie buried where they had been disembarked; some very important tombs, and the long-lost Basilica of St. Stephen on the Latin Way; and the completion of the excavation and clearing of the Appian Way.

Lady Richardson, of Lanrigg, near Grasmere, died on October 17, aged 78. She was the daughter of a distinguished mother (Mrs. Fletcher), whose autobiography she edited, and the widow of a brave and scientific Arctic traveller, Sir John Richardson; and she was herself a remarkable character, whose

friendship was deeply valued by many distinguished men and women. Lady Richardson was born in May 1802. Her father was that Archibald Fletcher whom Lord Cockburn called "a pure and firm patriot." Her mother, the life-long friend of Lord Brougham, the friend, too, in her later years of Wordsworth, by her brilliancy of intellect gathered round her all the genius of Edinburgh at the time of Edinburgh's greatest literary fame—that of the foundation of the *Edinburgh Review*. Lady Richardson was for many years her mother's constant companion, as she did not marry till 1847. In 1848, not many months after her marriage, she was called upon to part with her husband, she and Sir John having agreed that, should no tidings of his friend and connection, Sir John Franklin, have reached England by a certain date, Sir John Richardson was to go in search of him, in fulfilment of a promise to his friend. To add to Lady Richardson's cares during the trying period of suspense which followed, she had to perform the duties of a mother to her husband's children by a former wife, who had been a niece of Sir John Franklin. Nearly all the friends of Lady Richardson's early days died before her, but to the very last she retained her bright interest in the important questions of the day, whether literary, political, or scientific.

The Right Hon. Alfred Henry Thesiger was the third son of the well-known Lord Chancellor, the first Baron Chelmsford, by Anne Maria, youngest daughter of Mr. William Tinling, of Southampton. The Thesiger family were of foreign extraction, and settled in this country about 100 years ago. The late Lord Justice was born in 1838, and educated at Eton, where he steered the Eight, and on proceeding to Oxford played in the Christ Church Eleven, and was captain of the Torpids. He affords one instance among many (the names of Lord Justice Brett, Mr. E. Chitty, Q.C., M.P., &c. occur at once), that success in athletic sports at the University may be an excellent preparation for the Bar; but Mr. Thesiger had also designed to carry into the schools the same strenuousness and perseverance which he had shown on the river and in the cricket-field. Ultimately, however, Mr. Thesiger did not go in for honours in the final classical school, but obtained an "honorary fourth" in the law and history school. His papers in the schools were so well

done that, upon his going in for the *viva voce* part of his examination, the examiner, after asking him a couple of questions, advised him to allow the whole of his pass papers to be annulled and to go in for honours. This was a most distinguished compliment, and Mr. Gordon, his tutor, assured us in a letter, which we published in 1877, that he only remembered two other instances—that of the late Mr. Stephen Denison, who took the examiner's advice, and was placed in the first class; the other Mr. German Lavie, who was unable to act upon the examiner's advice, and received his honorary fourth. Mr. Thesiger followed the latter example, and reserved himself for the school of law and history, to which he applied for some months with the greatest assiduity, reading, on an average, ten or eleven hours a day. Here, however, his health failed him, and he was, under medical advice, obliged to give up all work and take complete rest. Under these circumstances, he did not even go in for a pass in law, that school being entirely optional, and, having gone into the mathematical school instead, he took his degree in the regular way. At that time he had almost decided to give up reading for the Bar, and to follow some other line of life. But, fortunately, his health began to improve. He was already entered at the Inner Temple, and in Trinity Term, 1862, he was "called" by the Benchers of that Inn. Mr. Thesiger had all the advantages that careful direction of his course of study by a very experienced lawyer, excellent introductions, and social influence of a most valuable kind could give, and he speedily showed that these recommendations were not bestowed in vain. His fair complexion and slender figure exposed him then and constantly afterwards to the charge which David Copperfield felt so deeply, of being "very young," but he worked assiduously, and became a favourite with members of both branches of his profession, for his modesty and genuine, but unobtrusive, attainments. He had the invaluable aid to an advocate with his fellows of being known never to take an advantage not permitted by the rules of the game. Mr. Thesiger was always looked upon as the soul of honour, and the model of professional etiquette and integrity. *Causes célèbres* he was not often concerned with; his practice lay in paths quieter, but not less surely avenues to fame. He held, however, a junior brief in the great Roupell case. He had the appointment of "postman"

in the Court of Exchequer, a meaningless office now, but which entitles the holder to a comfortable seat in court, and is usually bestowed upon a barrister who is popular in the profession. At one time he was frequently to be seen in the Committee Rooms of the Houses of Parliament; but he made up his mind to resign this part of his practice, and returned all his Parliamentary briefs. It was said then that he was going to be a Judge. The silk gown he had the honour to receive from the opposite political party. The son of a Conservative peer, and himself regarded as a Conservative, he applied to Lord Selborne for silk, and was made Q.C. in 1873. In distinction from the ordinary practice, which is to make a batch of Queen's Counsel at a time, Mr. Thesiger alone was added to the list of Her Majesty's counsel, and took his seat within the Bar. Leading business fell to his lot at once in remarkable profusion. From that time forward no advocate was heard more often in heavy commercial cases; in compensation cases he was the regular opponent to Sir Henry Hawkins. Eloquence was never ascribed to him, but his fair and common-sense way of presenting facts, and his complete mastery of details—above all, the virtue, which he shared with his distinguished opponent, of always reading his instructions, gave him great power with juries. With the Judges his habit of close reasoning and power of lucid argument prevailed. He had the reputation of being an excellent lawyer, and it was notorious that no counsel was listened to with more attention in the House of Lords. The class of cases in which his appearances before this august tribunal were most frequent was such appeals as that of *Cory v. Bristow*, in 1877, in which he was for the Conservators of the Thames in a dispute as to rights of mooring and rating derricks in the river, or "*Cowen v. the Duke of Buccleuch*," in the same year—a Scotch appeal relating to an alleged pollution of the river Esk by the emanations of several great manufacturing establishments along twelve miles of its banks in Mid Lothian. The reported judgments are full of compliments to Mr. Thesiger. It was in this year, on September 10, that he was made Attorney-General to the Prince of Wales, in succession to Mr. Loch—an appointment he was not to hold for many weeks. He had been elected a bencher of his Inn in 1874, and in 1876 sat on the Commission to which the Fugitive Slave Circular was referred.

Mr. Thesiger had never made any attempt to enter Parliament, but in the election that was impending it was understood to be his intention to issue an address on the Conservative side. During the year, however, the post of Lord Justice of Appeal fell vacant by the retirement of Sir Richard Amphlett, and Mr. Thesiger was nominated to the vacant place. The appointment took most people by surprise. It was remembered that Lord Cairns had been reported to have said that he found no counsel's arguments clearer than those of Mr. Thesiger; but such rapid promotion, it was argued, was unheard of. "A Queen's counsel whose silk gown is four years old, and its wearer only 39," wrote a critic, "and who has never in any way distinguished himself above his fellows, has been passed over the heads of twenty Judges into one of the most important judicial offices in the State." But the appointment justified itself by the eminently judicious conduct of the New Lord Justice on the Bench, and he bade fair to give to the Court of Appeal for many years that in which the English Judicature is wanting—the vigour of youth. To Mr. Thesiger it was a considerable money loss to leave the Bar for the Bench. He was earning 10,000*l.* a year, and, as one of the new Lords Justices, he became entitled only to 5,000*l.* a year, with an allowance for circuit expenses. The Lord Justice was made a member of the Privy Council. He had been a member of the Home Circuit; he now went the Circuits in their turn as a Judge. The late Lord Justice married, in 1863, Henrietta, daughter of the Hon. George Handcock. He had come up for medical advice about three weeks previously from his country seat at Lymington, where he had been taking vigorous exercise and sea-bathing. During the last nine days his illness assumed a very serious aspect; inflammation of the ear (which may have been due to want of caution in bathing) spread internally and led to blood-poisoning. This was the proximate cause of death, which took place on October 20. A career of great promise, and in which success had been obtained at an unusually early period, is thus brought unexpectedly to a close. Lord Justice Thesiger was only forty-two, and had held his high office for but three years.

Herr Emil Pallecke, a man who leaves behind no inconsiderable fame in Germany as the biographer of Schiller,

and as a public reader and lecturer on Shakspeare, Fritz Reuter, and other popular poets, died on October 20, at Berlin, aged 57. Born of humble Pomeranian parents at Tempelburg in 1823, Palleske first came before the public as an actor at Posen, and later on, at the instance of Stahr, the deceased husband of Fanny Lewald (the only living lady novelist almost of whom Germany can boast), he removed to Oldenburg, where, from acting plays, he took to writing them, and thus committed a graver error. Discovering it, however, in time, he hastened to retrieve his reputation by giving public recitations from the poets, and, being possessed of a fine voice and person, he soon achieved great success. On the appearance of Mr. Lewes's "Biography of Goethe," which excited no less the admiration than the jealousy of bookmakers in Germany, Palleske was instigated by a Berlin publisher to do for Schiller what a foreigner, to the shame of all patriotic Germans, had accomplished for his greater companion in glory. And there are some who even think, or, at least, assert, that the pupil outstripped the master, despite the maxim which maintains that Nature abhorreth duplicates, and the teaching of history, which shows that no great original work of art has ever been excelled by its copy. Palleske, who was further the author of a treatise on the art of public reading and lecturing, had recently been living in retirement at Thal, near Eisenach.

Major-General Edward W. de Lancey Lowe, son of the late Sir Hudson Lowe, who was in charge of Napoleon at St. Helena, died on October 21, in London. Major-General Lowe entered the Army as ensign in the 32nd Regiment from the Royal Military College in 1837, and was promoted to the rank of lieutenant in 1841, and captain in 1845. He served with the 32nd Regiment at the first and second siege operations before Mooltan, including the attack on the enemy's position, when he commanded the companies of the 32nd Regiment that were engaged. He was also present at the action of Soorjkand, the surrender of Mooltan, and the battle of Goojerat. For his services in this campaign he obtained a medal with two clasps. Major Lowe served throughout the Indian Mutiny of 1857-59, and commanded with much distinction the 32nd Regiment during the defence of the Residency of Lucknow, where he was wounded. In recognition of this

service he was mentioned in despatches, received the brevet rank of lieutenant-colonel, and was made a Companion of the Bath. He succeeded to the command of the 32nd Regiment in September 1858, and led his regiment at the defeat of the Gwalior rebels at Cawnpore, and at the reduction of Fort Tyrhool. For Lucknow he received a year's service, and the medal and clasp for the campaign of the Mutiny. In October 1859 he became lieutenant-colonel of the 21st Regiment, in 1863 of the 6th Regiment, and in 1867 of the 87th Regiment. He went upon half-pay in 1872, having received the brevet rank of colonel in 1863, and at the time of his death was in receipt of a reward for distinguished service.

Deputy Salvatore Morelli, a well-known Italian patriot, died on October 22, at Pozzuoli. Like Poerio, Settembrini, Spaventa, and others, he had suffered long years of imprisonment for his devotion to the cause of Italian liberty; more recently, as a deputy, he was looked upon as one of the oddities of the Italian Chamber. His eccentricities, his untiring ardour in advocating his extraordinary theories on the emancipation of women, the profound conviction he manifested in sustaining his ideas, the curious arguments and strange comparisons he employed in their support, and his pertinacity in introducing the subject whenever and in whatever debate he saw or thought he saw an opening he might turn to account for its advancement, were such as to afford the humorous journals, such as *Fanfulla*, ample materials for turning his discourses into ridicule, and to make his rising in the Chamber a signal for hilarity. But Morelli's equanimity and tolerance equalling his conviction of the truth of his case, were proof against laughter, and, instead of daunting him, it had the effect of calling forth stronger arguments and more forcible illustrations, often reaching the extravagant. He was born at Carovigno, near Lecce, in the Southern Neapolitan territory. From his youth he ardently participated in the Liberal movement, and from the year 1848-60 his life may be described as having been one continued imprisonment. Liberated on the downfall of the Bourbon dynasty, he started in succession three newspapers—the *Dittatore*, *L'Italia Salentina*, and the *Pensiero*—in the interest of the Advanced Left, and in 1867 he was elected deputy by the constituency of

Sessa Aurunca, and took his seat in Stall No. 1, at the extremity of the Left benches, a place he never relinquished except for the temporary convenience of Garibaldi on the few occasions he appeared in the Chamber. Siding with the Dissidents of the Left during the late crisis, his re-election was strongly opposed by the supporters of the Government. He lost his seat, and the bitter disappointment he felt, aggravating the malady from which he was suffering, is believed to have accelerated his death. In fact, his Parliamentary pursuits and the advancement of his theories were his only objects in life. He sought neither place nor riches, although he was so poor that, when at lunch-time he said he was going to get his beefsteak, every one knew that he meant the cup of coffee and piece of dry bread, often the only sustenance he took in the twenty-four hours. Sometimes he would be seen in a corner of the lobby philosophically consuming a hunch of bread and cheese; and finally, when his failing health required better fare, he had unwillingly to contract a debt of 10*l.* or 12*l.* at the *trattoria*. He was one of the most unselfish and kind-hearted of men. During his detention with other political prisoners on the island of Tremiti, an almost bare rock in the Adriatic, he saved the life of a drowning man at the risk of his own. On being informed by the governor that what he had done entitled him to a remission of punishment, he inquired if he could ask it for another, and, receiving an affirmative reply, asked and obtained the release of a fellow-prisoner whose wife and children were suffering want at home. For several years he had brought forward a Bill for the introduction of a divorce law into the Italian code. Its consideration was as regularly negatived, and often with laughter, by the Chamber. In the spring, his Bill receiving the powerful support of Signor Villa, the Minister of Grace and Justice, was referred to the Bureaux, but had not come on for discussion. His work "*La Donna e la Scienza*" has been translated into several languages. Those journals and deputies who were ever ready to make jest of Salvatore Morelli, or rather of his fixed idea regarding the emancipation of women, nevertheless invariably respected his integrity of character, his sound patriotism, his unimpeachable honesty. He was a patriot of the old school—a generation which accomplished many deeds with few words.

Baron Ricasoli died on October 23, at Broglio. For some years he had lived in retirement on account of impaired health. Descended from an old and well-known family settled in Tuscany, he was born there in 1809, and at a comparatively early age had his attention turned to politics as a consequence of being acquainted with several exiles. In the events of 1848 he had no share, but soon afterwards he aided in the restoration of the Grand Duke and advocated moderately liberal concessions. Indignant at the restoration of Austrian influence, Ricasoli, who had contributed to the overthrow of the system established by Guérazzi and Montanelli, went into private life, from which he was drawn ten years afterwards by the new movement in favour of Italian independence. He became a member of the Government formed by Signor Boncompagni. The withdrawal of the latter left Ricasoli dictator of Florence, a position in which he developed many high qualities. He proved equal to difficult emergencies, and by a series of prudent measures brought about the annexation of Tuscany to the kingdom of Italy. Elected a member of the Italian Parliament, he appeared at the head of the majority which supported Cavour, and upon the death of the latter was chosen as his successor. The leading objects he proposed to himself were a complete understanding with France, the consolidation of Italian unity, and the solution of the Roman question. In the spring of 1862 the Ricasoli Ministry retired, to be followed by that of Rattazzi. The outgoing Minister was then offered the Presidency of the Chamber, but declined the proposed honour. On the eve of the war of 1866, in order that General De la Marmora might be at liberty to devote himself exclusively to military affairs, Ricasoli was requested to replace him as President of the Council and reconstitute the Cabinet. He obeyed the summons, and in the course of a few months rendered essential services to his country, not only in connection with the contest in which it had engaged, but in matters of home policy. The financial and religious difficulties which attended the Roman question—a question ever before his eyes—led to the downfall of his Ministry. Early in 1867 the Chamber of Deputies threw out a Bill introduced by the Minister of Finance in regard to ecclesiastical property. Ricasoli, whose ideas on this subject were embodied in the measure, gave in his

resignation, which, however, the King declined to accept. The Chamber was dissolved, and in the new assembly a majority for the Government again appeared; but Ricasoli, deeming the support he received inadequate to the application of his ideas, soon afterwards induced the King to permit him to withdraw. His career as a statesman then came to a close. The state of his health from that time would not have permitted of his returning to public life even if he had wished to do so.

Sir Thomas Bouch, engineer of the ill-fated Tay Bridge, died October 30, at Moffat. Sir Thomas was born at Thursby, Cumberland, in 1822, and served his apprenticeship as an engineer in Carlisle. In 1849 he was appointed manager and engineer of the Edinburgh, Perth, and Dundee

Railway, and was afterwards engineer to the North British Railway. He soon acquired extensive business as a railway engineer, and had for many years a large consulting practice. Sir Thomas laid out numerous railways in England and Scotland, one of his largest undertakings in England being the South Durham and Lancashire Union Railway, on which there are large viaducts. He was also engineer for tramways in London, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dundee, and elsewhere. His last great work was the preparation of the original plans for the projected bridge across the Firth of Forth. The honour of knighthood was conferred upon him in 1879, in recognition of the energy and inventiveness displayed in the construction of the Tay Bridge, which before the year ended had been the cause of a most disastrous calamity.

On October 5, at Arrabeg, county Tipperary, aged 44, **Lieut.-Colonel Thomas Bernard Hackets, V.C.**, late of the 23rd Royal Welsh Fusiliers. Was present at the attack on the Redan, and afterwards throughout the Lucknow campaign of the Indian Mutiny. On October 6, at Boston, U.S., **Donald M'Kay**, the famous ship-builder. He acquired a great reputation for fast vessels, and at one time the English shipowners gave him large orders for Australian liners of about 2,000 tons each. One of his ships, the "Sovereign of the Seas," sailed 430 miles in twenty-four hours. On October 7, at South Kensington, aged 84, **General Samuel Braybrooke**, Colonel of the 99th Foot. Served through the Canadian War of 1815 and rebellion of 1817-18. On October 8, in London, aged 70, **Admiral Edward Granville George Howard**, first Baron Lanerton. Represented Morpeth on two occasions, resigning in 1837 in favour of Lord Leveson, and in 1853 of Sir George Grey. He was created a peer in 1874. By his death the title becomes extinct, and the members of the Howard family with seats in the House of Peers reduced to seven. On October 11, at Paris, aged 55, **Julius Enoch**, one time Russian Secretary of State and Privy Councillor, the friend and supporter of Count Wielopolski, for whom he obtained the appointment of Civil Governor of Poland in 1861. Disgraced in 1863, he withdrew to Paris. On October 18, in London, aged nearly 80, **General John Kynaston Luard, C.B.**, of the Madras Army. Entered the service in 1819; served in the expedition to Ava, 1824, and China, 1842. On October 19, at Munich, aged 64, **Hermann Theodor Vanschmid**, author of the drama of "Camoens" and of various sketches of popular life in Bavaria and the Tyrol. On October 21, at Berlin, aged 43, **Franz Bettmer**, a German actor of great reputation. On October 21, at Sherborne, aged 60, **Colonel Thomas Rattray, C.B., C.S.I.** Entered the Army in 1839; served under General Pollock in the Khyber Pass, where he was severely wounded. In 1856 he raised and disciplined a body of Sikhs, incorporated as the 45th Bengal Native Infantry—now known as Rattray's Sikhs. On October 21, at Montigny, near Fontainebleau, **Henri Schopin**, historical painter. Born at Lübeck in 1804 of French parents; gained the Prix de Rome in 1831. On October 21, at Bon le Roi, near Fontainebleau, **Alexandre Guillemin**, a brother artist and pupil of Gros, born in 1806. On October 25, aged 52, **Roger Montgomerie**, Deputy Lord Clerk Register of Scotland, a post to which he had been appointed only a few weeks previously. On October 25, **Rev. John Rodgers, M.A.**, rector of St. Thomas's, Charterhouse, and Vice-Chairman of the London School Board. Returned to the School Board by the Finsbury division at the first election, and at each subsequent triennial election. On October 25, at Wellington, Shropshire, aged 70, **Thomas Campbell Eyton**, of Eyton and Walford Manor, Shropshire, a distinguished naturalist. His private museum at Eyton Hall was celebrated for its rare collection of ornithological specimens. He was the author of various works on ornithology and history. On October 27, at Charing Cross Hospital, consequent upon injuries sustained in

falling through a trap whilst rehearsing at the Princess's Theatre, Charles Harcourt, aged 44, an actor of light comedy. His first appearance in London was at the St. James's Theatre in 1863, since which time he had been continually before the public. On October 27, at Kingstown, county Dublin, aged 88, **The Right Honourable Richard Mora O'Ferrall**, of Balyna House. He first entered Parliament in 1830 as Liberal member for Kildare, which county he represented until 1847, when he was appointed Governor of Malta. He returned in 1851, and sat first for Longford and subsequently for Kildare until 1865, when he retired from public life. He was sworn a Privy Councillor in 1847. On October 29, aged 73, **Sir Francis Lycett**. Upon leaving school he entered his father's glove works at Worcester, and in 1832 came to London to manage the London establishment of Messrs. Dent & Allcroft. In 1845 he became a member of the firm, from which he retired in 1865. In the following year he was elected a sheriff of the City of London, and was knighted in 1867.

NOVEMBER.

Viscount de Rio Branco died on November 3, at Rio Janeiro, after what is understood to have been prolonged suffering, from a cruel and painful malady, and at a period of life which otherwise promised a continuance of his great career in the work of legislation and administration. His eminent services to the empire included almost every branch of government, as well as of diplomacy, in which he played a most useful part at a critical time in the Plate, when the interests of the empire and its republics came into conflict. **Senhor Paranhos**, devoting himself early to public life, and without any assistance but his own abilities and the influence they brought to his advancement, gradually rose from one Ministry to another during the somewhat lengthened period of Conservative administration in Brazil, becoming Senator and a prominent member of the Council of State, until at last he, as the most eminent member of his party, became President of the Council. In that position he gratified the warmest wish of the Emperor and the desires of the country by succeeding in passing a law for the gradual abolition of slavery in Brazil, and the institution will soon be extinct. The Conservatism of the Viscount de Rio Branco was temperate, and displayed a liberality inspired by high intelligence; his official life was devoted to the carrying out of public improvements of all sorts. Railway extension, which is rapidly yielding great results to the empire, worth all its cost, was greatly indebted to him. He did his utmost to promote immigration, and while out of office all his faculties were given to the departments of the Council of State over which he had presided. It was not until after

he had ceased to be Prime Minister that he visited Europe—a bright, healthful, active, ready student here of all and everything that he thought might be useful to Brazil. Returning home, he was received at Rio with a general demonstration of welcome, and at once resumed his legislative duties.

H. J. Terry died on November 3, at Lausanne. He was an Englishman by birth. His father settled in Geneva, and placed him when a boy in the *atelier* of the famous Calame. Terry, however, exchanged painting for lithography, which was then coming into notice, and made such progress in its manipulation that Calame intrusted to him the reproduction of his pictures. He thus executed, after the drawings of the master, those plates and studies by which for a long course of years the name of Calame was made known all over Europe, and by whose use in continental schools of art a whole generation of landscape painters was formed. As a lithographer of landscapes Terry stood almost as high as Mouillevon, F. Lemoine, and Lemude. When lithography was compelled to give way before photography as a vehicle of landscape, Terry turned to water-colour painting. He lived for some time at Basle and Mülhausen, but settled finally at Lausanne.

Abbot Helfferstorfer, the Land Marshal of the province of Lower Austria, died in Vienna on November 5. He was a Benedictine monk of the old Scots Abbey at Vienna, and, having passed through various subordinate positions, was elected Abbot in 1861, and was consequently chosen member of the Lower House of the Reichsrath.

Here he distinguished himself by his broad and liberal views and his unceasing advocacy of a conciliatory policy, a line of conduct which gave great umbrage to the Ultramontane clerical party. He was a favourite with the Emperor, and on terms of intimacy with all the leading constitutional statesmen. In 1874 the Emperor made him a life member of the Upper House. In 1872 the Imperial favour had made him a Marshal of the province of Lower Austria, which gave him a sort of controlling authority over the local nobility, and he was a prominent figure on all ceremonial occasions. The Emperor had the earliest intimation of his death, and communicated it to the Austrian Delegation sitting at Pesth, saying, "I have just had very sorrowful news. Abbot Helferstorfer is dead. The abbey of the Scots, the province of Lower Austria, all of us, lose in him a most distinguished and thoroughly patriotic man. His death is a great loss."

Lord Wenlock died on November 6, after a short illness, at his seat, Escrick Park, near York, in the 63rd year of his age. The Right Hon. Beilby Richard Lawley, second Lord Wenlock, of Wenlock, Shropshire, in the peerage of the United Kingdom and a baronet, was the eldest son of Paul Beilby, first lord, by his marriage with the Hon. Caroline Neville, third daughter of Richard, second Lord Braybrooke. He was born in Berkeley Square in April 1818, was educated at Eton, and sat in Parliament as member for Pontefract, in the Liberal interest, from February 1851 till May of the following year, when, by the death of his father, he succeeded to the title and his seat in the Upper House. His lordship was Lord Lieutenant of the East Riding of Yorkshire, a magistrate for the North Riding, and honorary colonel of the Yorkshire Hussar Yeomanry. His father assumed the name of Thompson only in 1820, but in 1839 he resumed his patronymic Lawley before the name of Thompson, while his children retained the name of Lawley only; his elder brother had been created Baron Wenlock in 1831, but on his death without issue that title became extinct, and the present was created under a fresh patent in 1839.

Mrs. Lydia Maria Child, a well-known American author and reformer, died at New York on November 8. She was the daughter of Mr. David Francis, of Medford, Massachusetts, where she

was born on February 11, 1802. At the age of 26 she was married to Mr. David Lee Child, a lawyer, and for many years they lived in New York city, where they jointly conducted an able abolitionist paper, the *National Anti-Slavery Standard*. Mrs. Child's first ventures in literature were two stories, "Hobomok" and "The Rebels," tales respectively of Indian life and of the Revolution, both written when the author was under 20 years of age. At a later period she edited the *Juvenile Miscellany*, and wrote the following works:—"The Frugal Housewife," the "Girl's Own Book," and the "Mother's Book." These were followed by her biographies of Rachel Lady Russell, Madame Guyon, Madame de Staël, and Madame Roland. She also wrote a work on "Good Wives," a "History of the Condition of Women in all Ages," and a classical romance, entitled "Philothea," the scene of which was laid in Athens in the age of Pericles. Her latest works were a "Life of Isaac T. Hopper," and the "Progress of Religious Ideas," together with a compilation entitled "Looking toward Sunset."

Lieutenant-Colonel William Mure, of Caldwell, Ayrshire, M.P. for the county of Renfrew, died in London on November 9, in his 51st year. He was the eldest son of the late Colonel William Mure, M.P., of Caldwell, formerly Vice-Lieutenant of the county of Renfrew, by his marriage with Laura, daughter of the late Mr. William Markham, of Becca Hall, Yorkshire. He was born in the year 1830, and was formerly a lieutenant-colonel in the Scots Fusilier Guards, from which he retired in 1859. He served with the 60th Rifles in the Caffre War of 1851-53, for which he received a medal; and he also served with the 79th Highlanders in the Eastern campaign of 1854, being present at the battles of Alma and Balaclava and the siege of Sebastopol, for which services he received a medal and clasps, and also the Turkish medal. Colonel Mure was a Deputy-Lieutenant for Ayrshire, a magistrate and Deputy-Lieutenant for Renfrewshire, and colonel of the 2nd Battalion Renfrewshire Rifle Volunteers. He was elected M.P. for Renfrewshire in the Liberal interest at the general election in 1874, and again returned by the same constituency at the general election of 1880.

General von Goeben was born in 1846, at Stade, in Hanover. He was the son of a major, and entered the

Prussian army in 1833 as a simple private. But the times were stale and flat, and young Goeben felt the fire of energy and adventure burning within him, so, procuring leave from the King, he repaired to Spain in quest of fame and fortune, taking service as a volunteer with the pretender Don Carlos. Nor did his fighting qualities long lie latent, his valour even exciting the admiration of his enemies. He was to the front in five battles, he was several times wounded and twice taken prisoner, and found himself, at the end of a campaign in which both combatants had fought themselves clean out, a lieutenant-colonel of Engineers. Sheathing his sword, but still eager for adventure, the young soldier, like another Quentin Durward, now turned his face northwards and plodded home through France on foot. His experiences in the south were recorded by Von Goeben in his interesting and widely read "Four Years in Spain." In 1842 he re-entered the Prussian service, and was on the staff of the present Emperor when, as Crown Prince, he led an army south to Baden to strangle a half-hearted revolution in its cradle. In 1860, when Spain declared war against Morocco, Von Goeben, who was now Chief on the Staff to the 8th Army Corps, was sent with several other Prussian officers to the camp of Marshal O'Donnell to watch the progress of hostilities. His observations on this occasion were interestingly chronicled in his "Reise und Lagerbriefe aus Spanien, und vom Spanischen Heere in Morocco" (Sketches of Travel and Camp Life in Spain, and with the Spanish Army in Morocco), which appeared in two volumes at Hanover in 1863. Returning home after the war, he was rewarded with the command of a brigade, and soon had an opportunity of turning to account his experience of actual warfare at the storming of the Duppel redoubts and the landing of the allies at Ailsen. But his fame as a leader was chiefly derived from the campaign of 1866, when, as commander of a division, he advanced from Munster on Hanover, and contributed to break the resistance of King George, after which, speeding off to the south and forming with his troops the left wing of the main army, he successfully helped in defeating the Bavarians at Kissingen, the Hessians at Laufach, and the Austrians at Aschaffenburg. Intrusted in 1870 with the supreme command of the 8th Army Corps, General von Goeben once more gave proof of his soldierly

qualities at Saarbrück, at Gravelotte, and in the circumvallation of Metz, on the surrender of which he marched off with the army to the north of France, and again earned fresh laurels at Amiens and the decisive encounter of St. Quentin. He was one of the few Generals who received the Grand Cross of the Iron Cross. Since 1871 he has commanded his Corps at Coblenz. Like Cæsar, too, General von Goeben could not only fight well, but also write well, his despatches from the field and his subsequent newspaper descriptions of engagements in which he took part being excellent specimens of military authorship. He died on November 13, and as a mark of respect the officers of the 8th Army Corps which he commanded were ordered to go into mourning for three days.

Rev. John Power, D.D., Master of Pembroke College, died on November 18, at the Master's Lodge. He had been in failing health for upwards of a year, and it was on that account that he had declined to again fill the office of Vice-Chancellor on the completion of his third term of office in 1879. Dr. Power graduated as a member of Pembroke College in the Mathematical Tripos of 1841, and obtained the high place of 8th Wrangler. In that tripos the members of his college were very conspicuous. Professor Stokes was senior Wrangler, and Mr. Sykes, who was afterwards Fellow and Tutor of Pembroke, was 3rd Wrangler. Among the other successful candidates in that year's tripos are the names of the following, who have since attained eminence, viz.:—Mr. Swainson, now Lady Margaret's Professor of Divinity; Mr. Ellicott, formerly Hulsean Professor of Divinity and at present Bishop of Gloucester and Bristol; Mr. Bickersteth, the present Bishop of Ripon; and Mr. Titcomb, who was recently consecrated Bishop of Rangoon. Mr. Power was in due course elected to a Fellowship, and devoted himself to collegiate work. He subsequently became tutor of the college, and under his régime the popularity of the college was much enhanced. He filled the office of Proctor in the University in 1862. In 1870, on the death of Dr. Ainslie, who had been Master for upwards of forty years, Mr. Power was elected to succeed him. In November of the same year he was elected Vice-Chancellor of the University, and was re-elected in 1871. He discharged the duties of that office

with most conspicuous ability. In 1878 he was for a third time elected Vice-Chancellor, and displayed during his year of office the same zeal, the same geniality, which had rendered him so justly popular on the former occasions on which he had been called upon to preside over University affairs.

Alfred Hudson, Senior Physician in Ordinary to the Queen in Ireland, died on November 19, at his residence, Loweville, near Dublin. Born on November 15, 1808, he was the eldest son of the Rev. John Hudson, minister for over forty years to the Independent Congregational Church at West Bromwich, and a man who has left a lasting mark in that district. Alfred Hudson early showed a taste for the medical profession, and for a time pursued his medical studies in London. Attracted by the fame of the Dublin School, he came to Ireland in 1828, and entered Trinity College. He was a pupil of Macartney, Crampton, Graves, and Stokes, and took his degree of M.B. along with that of A.B. in 1834. In the same year he was admitted a member of the College of Surgeons, England. In 1835 he was elected Physician to the Navan Fever Hospital, a position which gave him quite exceptional opportunities of studying the subject of fevers and their various complications. All through the great Irish famine Hudson was gaining experience as a physician and winning the esteem of his fellow-men by his coolness and devotion. For twenty years he laboured as a country doctor, having, as such, a very extensive private practice. In 1855, on the entreaties of many friends, he settled in Dublin, receiving the appointment of physician to the Adelaide Hospital in 1858, which post he resigned on being made the junior physician to the Meath Hospital in 1861, the then senior physician being Dr. Stokes. In 1871, his practice becoming very extensive, so as to interfere with what he regarded as the necessary attendance on hospital work, he resigned this physicianship. In 1877 he was appointed by the Crown a member of the General Council of Medical Education and Registration of the United Kingdom. In 1878, on the death of Dr. Stokes, he was elected Regius Professor of Medicine in the University of Dublin and Physician in Ordinary to the Queen in Ireland. Feeling his health failing him during the summer of the present year, he resigned his Regius Professorship at the

commencement of the winter's session, six weeks before his death. He was a Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Ireland (1844), a Fellow and sometime President of the King and Queen's College of Physicians, Ireland, and a M.D. of the University of Dublin (1861). Settling early in his life in Ireland, he became even more Irish than the Irish themselves, except, perhaps, in one accomplishment—he never was a ready speaker. Though a great clinical teacher, he always dreaded the delivery of a formal lecture; and, while quick at repartee, never could be persuaded to make a set speech.

Field-Marshal Sir Charles Yorke, G.C.B., died on November 20, at his residence, in South Street, Grosvenor Square, in his 90th year. He was a son of the late Colonel Yorke, sometime Lieutenant of the Tower of London, by his marriage with Juliana, daughter of Mr. John Dodd, of Swallowfield, Berkshire, and was born in the year 1790. Sir Charles Yorke entered the Army in January 1807. He served in the Peninsula with the 52nd Regiment, and was present at the battles of Vimiera, Fuentes d'Onor, Salamanca, Vittoria, the Pyrenees, and Nivelle, where he was wounded, and at Nive and Orthes, where he was again severely wounded. He received for his Peninsular services the war medal with ten clasps. He took part in the Waterloo campaign, and also served in the Caffre war of 1852-53 at the Cape of Good Hope. Having been appointed to the colonelcy of the 33rd Foot, Sir Charles was transferred in 1863 to the post of Colonel-Commandant of the 2nd Battalion of the Rifle Brigade. He acted as Military Secretary to the Commander-in-Chief from 1864 down to 1860. He was nominated a Knight Commander of the Order of the Bath (military division) in 1856, and was promoted to the Grand Cross of the same Order in 1861. Sir Charles Yorke succeeded the late Field-Marshal Sir William Gomm as Constable of the Tower of London and Lord-Lieutenant of the Tower Hamlets about five years ago. He was presented with the *bâton* of a Field-Marshal in June 1877.

Lord Chief Justice Cockburn.—Sir Alexander Cockburn was born on December 24, 1802, and was privately educated, partly abroad and partly in England. He owed to this early training and to the French parentage of his mother a remarkable acquaintance

with foreign languages. French he spoke with great purity, and he was well acquainted with Spanish, German, and Italian. His two sisters had married Italian gentlemen. At Cambridge he gained distinction in Latin prose, and on an application which had been fruitlessly made to him in English for a seat in court during the Tichborne trial being repeated in classical Greek, it was immediately answered by a card of admission. Alexander Cockburn became a member of Trinity Hall, at Cambridge, in 1822, and in his second year gained prizes for the best exercises in English and Latin. Afterwards he won similar honours for an English essay. He took his degree in law in 1829, and was at once elected Fellow of his college, a dignity and emolument which he held for many years. In 1825 he had been admitted a member of the Middle Temple, and was called to the Bar on February 6, 1829. Mr. Cockburn went the Western Circuit, attending the Devonshire Sessions, and he soon rose into a considerable civil practice. Soon after the Reform Bill was passed he commenced, with Mr. Rowe, the publication of the reports of the decisions which arose out of that measure, and the volume in which the reports were collected was of great and substantial merit. He was consequently engaged on several contests before election committees, and in 1834, only five years after his call, he was made a member of the Municipal Corporations Commission. His mastery of style and his distinguished courtesy (which he maintained to the last upon the Bench, even when wearied to the utmost by the persistency of an advocate) made him early an acceptable counsel before Parliamentary Committees whether on election petitions (then tried before the members of the House of Commons) or on railway Bills. After some years of this lucrative practice he became Recorder of Bristol, and obtained, in 1841, the rank of Queen's Counsel. In the year in which Sir Alexander Cockburn took the silk gown he ably defended his uncle and assisted in thwarting the attempt to deprive him of the deanery of York. Among other cases in which he distinguished himself as a leader was the defence, in 1843, of M'Naughten, who had shot Mr. Drummond, the secretary of Sir Robert Peel. The prisoner was acquitted on the ground of insanity. In 1847 he was elected, as an Advanced Liberal, member of Parliament for Southampton—a borough

which he continued to represent till he was raised to the Bench. He gave a steady support to the Liberal party; but it was not till the year 1850 that he made the speech which at once placed him in the first rank of Parliamentary orators. This took place on the occasion of the "Don Pacifico" claims, which Lord Palmerston had pressed against the Greek Government. Lord Russell's Ministry had been defeated in the House of Lords, and was in great danger of a similar disaster in the Commons. Lord Palmerston, desirous of a legal statement of the case, is said to have sought the advocacy of Mr. Crowder, a well-known lawyer, afterwards a Puisne Judge of the Common Pleas; but for some reason he excused himself. Mr. Cockburn accepted the task, and his lucid argumentation was chiefly instrumental in obtaining a majority of forty-six for the Ministry. This occasion is memorable as the last upon which Sir Robert Peel appeared in the House of Commons. Within a few hours of the conclusion of the debate he met with the accident which caused his death. Mr. Cockburn followed up his success by an eloquent denunciation, in the next great debate, of the cruelties practised by the Austrian Government upon the Magyar rebels. When Sir John Jervis retired from the Attorney-Generalship later in the year, and Sir John Romilly moved up from the post of Solicitor, the Solicitor-Generalship was offered to Mr. Cockburn. In the following year he became Attorney-General on the promotion of Sir John Romilly to the Mastership of the Rolls, and held that office until Lord John Russell's retirement in February 1852. In December of the same year he returned as principal law officer of the Coalition Ministry. In November 1856, on the death of Sir John Jervis, he accepted with some reluctance the post of Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, and presided over that Court until June 1859, when Lord Palmerston, on coming into power, was forced to admit the prior claim of Lord Campbell to the Chancellorship. Sir Alexander Cockburn, however, succeeded to the post of Lord Chief Justice of England thus vacated. After his return from the Geneva Arbitration he was offered a peerage, but preferred the Grand Cross of the Bath. Amongst the important cases in which Sir Alexander Cockburn was mixed up either as an advocate or a judge may be mentioned the case of *Father Achilli* against John Henry Newman, which

took place in the days of the "Papal Aggression." The latter, in one of his letters on the position of Catholics in England, had called the prosecutor a profligate under a cowl and a scandalous friar. In the action for libel which ensued, Sir A. Cockburn was counsel for Father Newman, and although the verdict in the first instance went against him, it was subsequently set aside, and the new trial never proceeded with. He prosecuted, for the Crown, Palmer in the great Rugeley poisoning case, which lasted twelve days. His most famous judgments were those in the case of the Queen v. Calthorpe, vindicating the character of the Earl of Cardigan; in the Ryves case, in which Mrs. Ryves endeavoured to prove herself a Princess of royal blood; the case of Governor Eyre and others, growing out of the Jamaica outbreak; the case of Saurin v. Starr, brought by a sister of mercy against the superior of a convent; and the well-known Tichborne case. On the day of his death, November 20, the Lord Chief Justice had presided over the Court formed for the consideration of Crown Cases Reserved. He was not observed to fail in any degree in his old mastery of fact and reasoning and brilliant readiness of eloquent exposition. When the Court rose early in the afternoon, he sent his brougham away and walked home to 40 Hertford Street, Mayfair, from Westminster Hall. He devoted the leisure hours of Saturday afternoon to writing. Saturday night was an extremely cold one, and Sir Alexander Cockburn, who was 78 years of age, had suffered already in the autumn from *angina pectoris*. He retired to bed about half-past 11, and was then seized with a sudden pain over the region of the heart. He expired in a quarter of an hour. A predecessor of Sir Alexander Cockburn in his important office, John Fineux, Chief Justice of England in the 15th and 16th centuries, selected for his Serjeant's ring the motto from Sallust—*Sua quisque fortuna faber*. The late Lord Chief Justice was, like that predecessor and most other judges, the architect of his own fortune, but his ancestors had for many generations done distinguished service to the State. A Sir Alexander Cockburn, knight, grandson of a knight who fell at Bannockburn, was Keeper of the Great Seal of Scotland between 1389 and 1396. Sir William Cockburn, knight, obtained a grant in 1595 of the lands and barony of Langton, county of Berwick; and it was his son, William Cockburn, who

was created a baronet of Nova Scotia in 1657. Reckoning from him, the late Lord Chief Justice was the 10th baronet in the family of the Cockburns of Langton. The fifth baronet fell at Fontenoy, the seventh (an uncle of the late Sir Alexander's) was a major-general in the Army, Under-Secretary of State in 1806, and Governor of the Bermudas in 1811. The eighth (another uncle of the Lord Chief Justice) was Admiral of the Fleet, and Lord of the Admiralty from 1818 to 1830 and from 1841 to 1846. A baronetcy, created a year later, is held by Sir Edward Cludde Cockburn, of Cockburn and Ryslaw, in the same county. The late Lord Chief Justice was the son of Mr. Alexander Cockburn, Envoy Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Colombia, by Yolande, daughter of the Vicomte de Vignier. This Mr. Alexander Cockburn was the fourth son of Sir James Cockburn, M.P. for Peebles, by his second wife, a niece of George, Lord Lyttleton. Mr. Alexander Cockburn (who died in 1852) was the only one of four brothers who did not succeed to the baronetcy. It fell to his son, the late Lord Chief Justice, in 1858, by the death of the Very Rev. Sir William Cockburn, Dean of York, the third brother.

Colonel John Whitehead Peard, better known as "Garibaldi's Englishman," died on November 21, at his residence near Fowey, in Cornwall, at the age of about 69, from the effects of a paralytic seizure. The second son of the late Vice-Admiral Shuldharn Peard, by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Mr. William Fortescue, of Penwarr, Cornwall, he was born at Fowey in 1811, and graduated at Exeter College, Oxford. He was called to the Bar at the Inner Temple in 1837, and for sometime practised on the Western Circuit. Colonel Peard held a captain's commission in the Duke of Cornwall's Rangers when the Italian war of independence broke out in 1859, and at once offered himself as a volunteer to Garibaldi. He shared the adventures of "the Liberator of Italy" during several of his campaigns, and more especially that of 1860, when he obtained the warm thanks of his commander. On the retirement of Garibaldi to his island home in Caprera, Colonel Peard returned to Cornwall. He was a magistrate for that county, and served as high sheriff in 1869.

Edwin Guest, L.L.D., F.R.S., who on

October 14 resigned the Mastership of Gonville and Caius College, Oxford, died on November 23, at his country residence in Oxfordshire. Dr. Guest was a son of the late Mr. E. Guest, and was born in 1802. He graduated at Caius College in 1824, when he was 11th Wrangler. He was in due course elected a Fellow of Caius, was called to the Bar in 1828, and for some years practised that profession. In 1852, on the death of Dr. Chapman, Mr. Guest, who had still retained his Fellowship, and was second in seniority of the Fellows, was elected Master, and in 1853 proceeded to the degree of LL.D. He was Vice-Chancellor of the University in 1864. In 1869 he married Ann, daughter of Mr. Joseph Ferguson, of Morton, near Carlisle, and widow of Major Robert Murray Banner, who survives him. He was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society about 1841, and has been for many years a Justice of the Peace for the county of Oxford and for the borough of Cambridge. Dr. Guest was the author of a "History of English Rhythms," in two volumes, which was first published in 1838, a second edition appearing in 1855. He also published a paper read before the Archaeological Society, at Salisbury, in 1849, on the "Early English Settlements in South Britain."

Mark Firth died on November 28, at Oakbrook, Sheffield, in his sixty-second year. By his death the town loses one of its greatest benefactors. Mr. Mark Firth was the son of Mr. Thomas Firth, a steel melter, employed at the works of Sanderson Brothers many years ago in Sheffield. In 1843 Mr. Thomas Firth commenced business in a small way as a steel manufacturer, and was assisted by his two sons, Mark and Thomas. The determination and tact with which Mr. Mark Firth pushed the business were remarkable; and in 1849 the firm of Thomas Firth and Sons erected the Norfolk Works, in which an enormous business was developed, not only in gun-making but in steel for various purposes. The immense wealth possessed by Mr. Mark Firth is solid evidence of his marvellous success as a man of business, and that he applied his riches wisely is apparent from his enormous acts of munificence. His first gift of any magnitude was 1,000*l.*, which he added to a legacy of 5,000*l.* left by his brother Thomas for the erection of a college for the training of young men for the New Connexion ministry. In 1869 he erected "Mark Firth

Almshouses," at Ranmoor, near his own residence, at a cost of 30,000*l.* In this building there are 36 houses, accommodating 39 persons, which are left to the poor of the town for ever. The inmates have free occupancy, and receive a weekly allowance of 10*s.* for a married couple and 7*s.* for a single inmate. His next munificent act was the gift of "Firth Park" to the town. He purchased the Page Hall estate for 29,000*l.*, and set apart 36 acres for the benefit of the people of Sheffield. The park was opened in 1875 by the Prince of Wales, who, with the Princess of Wales, was for some days Mr. Mark Firth's guest. But the most useful act of his life was the foundation of Firth College, in Sheffield, opened by Prince Leopold in 1879. The college, which forms a prominent part of a pile of imposing educational buildings in the centre of the town, was erected and fitted up by Mr. Mark Firth at a cost of 20,000*l.* A believer in the importance of extending higher education, Mr. Firth took great interest in the University Extension scheme, and, in order to give it a local home, not only built the college, but endowed it at a further cost of 5,000*l.*, and gave a chair of chemistry worth 150*l.* a year. The endowment fund now amounts to 20,000*l.*, and a great educational work is being carried on in the institution. Mr. Mark Firth filled the offices of Mayor and Master Cutler with honour and dignity, and gave his support to nearly every movement calculated to benefit the town and to elevate the condition of its inhabitants.

John Whitwell, M.P. for Kendal, died on November 28, at his residence, Bank House. Mr. Whitwell was born on September 6, 1811, and, having received an excellent elementary training in Kendal, he finished his instruction at the Friends' Boarding School, at Darlington, where his uncle, the late Edward Pease, resided. He practically founded and raised to great prosperity two well-known businesses. One was the business of carpet manufacturer, and the other that of wool-broker. For thirty years he belonged to the Society of Friends, but for many years had been a member of the Established Church. He was also a supporter of the Volunteer movement, and at the time of his death occupied the position of lieutenant-colonel in the Westmoreland Volunteers. He was in politics a somewhat advanced Liberal, and represented his native borough in Parliament for over twelve years, having

been first elected member in November 1868, upon the retirement of Mr. George Grenfell Glyn, afterwards Lord Wolverton. He was one of the best known figures in the House of Commons, and frequently took part in the debates, especially upon the votes of Supply.

He occupied the civic chair of his native town on six occasions. Mr. Whitwell was also one of the leading members of the Associated Chamber of Commerce of Great Britain, and on Mr. Sampson Lloyd's retirement was elected to succeed him as chairman.

On November 1, at Paris, aged 54, **Comtesse de Civry**,morganatic daughter of Duke Charles II. of Brunswick. Born in the Duke's palace, and brought up by him until the age of 18, she was suddenly disowned on account of her conversion to Romanism, by the Abbé La Cordaire, and her marriage with the Comte Civry. She was the author of a life of St. Elizabeth of Hungary, and other books. On November 1, at Hornsey, aged 79, **Ferdinand Brand**, for more than fifty years an official of the Corporation of the City of London, and Comptroller of the Chamber from 1854-78. On November 3, at Hartrigge House, Jedburgh, aged 78, **Robert Macfarlane**, Lord Ormidale, Judge of the Court of Session in Scotland. Admitted as advocate in 1838, after having practised ten years as a writer to the Signet; appointed advocate deputy and sheriff of Renfrewshire, 1853, and in 1862 promoted to a judgeship. On November 4, at Horsham, aged 87, **Pilford Medwin**, cousin and intimate friend of Shelley, whose early home was at Field Place, near Horsham. On November 4, at Orde House, Berwick-on-Tweed, aged 84, **General John Tatton Brown-Grieve, C.B.**, a distinguished officer in the Royal Marines, which service he entered in 1811; was present at the attacks on La Ciotat d'Escalieu in the Bay of Rosas and of Algiers. Subsequently he served through the Syrian War of 1841. On November 7, at Santander, **Don Jose Maria Orense**, Marquess of Albaida, Grandee of Spain, a large landowner and for many years leader of the Spanish Democratic party—by whom, on its accession to power he was rewarded with the insignificant and uncongenial post of President of the Cortes. On November 11, in London, aged 91, **John Lewis Eyre**, Count Eyre in the Papal dominions. On November 11, at Bright, aged 40, **Thomas Francis Dallin**, Public Orator of the University of Oxford since 1877, Fellow and Tutor of Queen's College, and one of the secretaries of the Oxford University Commission. On November 14, in London, aged 69, **Mr. G. W. Yapp**, the compiler of the catalogue of the Exhibition of 1851, and secretary to Joseph Hume. He was connected by marriage with the families of Sir Walter Scott, Charles Dickens, and Douglas Jerrold, and had contributed to most of the modern technical and industrial publications from the *Penny Cyclopædia* downwards. During his latter years he chiefly resided in Paris, and translated from the proof-sheets in 1867 the huge volumes of the official catalogue of the Paris Exhibition of that year. His balloon letters from Paris, during the siege, to the *Fréd Journal*, describing the cooking of rats, beasts from the Jardin des Plantes, &c., attracted much notice. On November 16, at Leamington, aged 58, **Colonel Charles Darby**. With 200 volunteers from the 13th Regiment he served with the Scinde Camel Corps during Sir Charles Napier's campaign of 1845, and with the 86th Foot throughout the rebellion of 1857-58 in the campaign of Central India under Sir Hugh Rose. At the siege of Jhansi he led the storming party and was severely wounded. On November 16, at Munich, in his 78th year, **Dr. Karl Roth**, one of the greatest contemporary German scholars, and the last survivor of the Munich triad of which Schmeller and Vollmer were the other two. On November 20, at Berlin, aged 72, **Karl Friedrich Weitzmann**, a pupil of Henning and Bernhard Klein; until 1848 in the service of the Emperor (Nicholas) of Russia as Court Musician. Subsequently he devoted himself entirely to the investigation of the theory of musical composition. On November 22, at Kensington, aged 66, **Rev. Edward Cooper Woolcombe**, Senior Fellow of Balliol College and rector of Tendring, Essex. On November 24, at Torquay, aged 63, **Sir Benjamin Collins Brodie**, late Professor of Chemistry in the University of Oxford, and in 1859 and 1860 President of the Chemical Society; the eldest son of the eminent surgeon and President of the Royal Society. On November 27, at Rome, **Dr. A. Klügmann**, librarian of the German Archaeological Institute in that city, a recognised authority on Etruscan and other antiquities. On November 28, at Aylesbury, aged 83, **Robert Coely, F.R.C.S.**, a great authority on the subject of vaccination, and an earnest advocate of all measures enacted for the benefit of public health. On November 28, in London, aged 81, **Charles John Manning**, elder brother of Cardinal Manning, and son of William Manning of Combe Bank, Sevenoaks, Kent.

sometime Governor of the Bank of England. On November 30, at Cologne, aged 66, **Herr Wilhelm Schulze**, part proprietor and chief director of the *Cologne Gazette*. Born at Magdeburg in 1814, the son of a reputable and successful merchant, Herr Schulze began life as a bookseller's assistant, gaining a thorough knowledge of the publishing trade at Leipsic and Utrecht, whence he was invited in 1844 to Cologne by his friend Joseph Dumont, the proprietor of the popular Rhenish journal above mentioned.

DECEMBER.

Naonobou Sameshima, Minister Plenipotentiary of Japan in Paris, died on December 5, at the age of 36. Sameshima had been nine years in France. He was sent here as Chargé d'Affaires in 1871; was later on appointed Minister Plenipotentiary; returned to Japan for two years as Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs; married there, and came back with his wife to France. Sameshima was also accredited to the Courts of Madrid and Lisbon, and he was on the point of proceeding thither to present his credentials when he was taken ill with pleurisy, which carried him off after a fortnight's illness. His death, which has painfully affected all who knew him, has taken nobody by surprise. He was in extremely delicate health, and his weak chest obliged him to seek in the south of France refuge from the rigours of the northern climate. He belonged to a family of military nobility of the Sazouma; came early in life to Europe, and completed his studies in England. He wrote English with remarkable purity, and at the beginning of his sojourn in Paris could only make use of that language. But he set ardently to work, and was soon able to express himself in French, and thenceforth in official circles his high political capacities were appreciated. He studied European civilisation with indefatigable perseverance, and he certainly has greatly contributed to the friendly relations of Japan with Europe. He distinguished himself from most of his fellow-countrymen, and even from most Orientals, in not entertaining for Europeans the obstinate distrust that characterises them, and he succeeded in winning sincere and constant friendships because he did not suspect them of concealing some selfish interest. He had great weight in all that regarded his intervention in the relations of Japan with France, and his loss is the greater for his country, inasmuch as it has come at a time when, thanks to his perseverance, the negotiations are about

to be opened for the revision of the commercial treaties between Japan and those European powers that have entered into them. He was generally reproached with not speaking enough, but he had so faultless a bearing and such a dignified appearance that his presence always ended by making up for a rather persistent taciturnity. Moreover, he made inquiries which were always to the purpose, listened with attention, and, constantly preoccupied about his country, sought instruction on every hand. He had been appointed Envoy Extraordinary at the second marriage of Alfonso XII., and it was on a similar occasion that he repaired to Brussels. Both there and at Madrid he won general esteem by his noble manners and affable character, and in connexion with these two missions obtained the Grand Ribands of Charles III. of Spain and of Leopold of Belgium. He was officer of the Legion of Honour, officer of Public Instruction, and grand officer of the Order of the Rising Sun of Japan. Recently he had been a little anxious about the course of affairs in his country, where his political friends had been deprived of the management of affairs, and he was working with redoubled zeal to counter-balance here the mistakes he feared would be committed there. He cherished, by the natural tendency of his enlightened spirit, the doctrines of Confucius, and, without openly expressing himself on that subject, seemed more and more to leave Buddhism, which is the form of worship preferred by the zealots of his country.

The Right Hon. Sir James William Colville was the eldest son of the late Mr. Andrew Wedderburn Colville, of Ochiltree and Crombie, county Fife, by the Hon. Louisa Mary Eden, daughter of William, the first Lord Auckland. He was born in 1810, and was educated at Eton, and at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took the B.A. degree

in 1831 and the M.A. in 1834. He was placed third in the second class of Mathematical Honours (Senior Optime), in the same tripos in which the late Baron Amphlett was 6th Wrangler and the late Bishop Selwyn a Junior Optime. Among his warmest friends at Cambridge was the poet Monckton Milnes (Lord Houghton); and the Tennysons and Richard Shilleto were also his contemporaries at Trinity. Sir James Colville was called to the Bar by the Hon. Society of the Inner Temple in 1835, and practised for ten years in this country as an equity draftsman, having chambers in Lincoln's Inn. In 1845, however, he became (owing to a large extent to the influence of Lord Lyveden, then President of the Board of Control) Advocate-General for the East India Company at Calcutta, and in 1848 was raised to the Bench as Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court of the Presidency, and was knighted. In 1855 he was appointed Chief Justice of the same tribunal, and retired after holding this high office for four years, but was immediately on his return to England sworn in as a Privy Councillor, and made assessor to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council on Indian appeals. He sat for some years in that capacity with Sir Laurence Peel, and was in November 1865 appointed a member of the Judicial Committee itself. In 1871, upon the passing of the Judicial Committee Act of that year, he became one of the paid Judges of the Committee under that Act. His knowledge of Indian systems of law and his acquaintance with India were highly valued by his colleagues and by suitors; and his judgments were full and exhaustive statements, often of cases intricate and involved in the highest degree. According to the custom of the Privy Council, they embodied the opinions of other Judges which he had assisted to form, the practice of a separate judgment being delivered by each Judge not having taken root in this tribunal. To his legal attainments in connexion with India, the late Judge added a warm interest in scientific and economical questions connected with our great dependency. He had been President of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, and began in that capacity relations with the Royal Society of England, of which he afterwards became a Fellow. Sir James Colville married, in 1857, Frances Elinor, daughter of Sir John Peter Grant, K.C.B., G.C.M.G., of Rothimurchus, late Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, Governor

of Jamaica, &c.; and had by her an only child, Andrew John Wedderburn, who died in 1876. He was a Justice of the Peace and Deputy-Lieutenant for the county of Fife (his seat in Scotland being Craigflower, Torryburn, Dunfermline, in that county), and was a bencher of the Inner Temple. The late Judge died at his residence, 8 Rutland Gate, South Kensington, almost suddenly, on December 6. On the 4th (Saturday), he had sat on the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council at Whitehall, and throughout the following day was apparently in his usual health.

Madame Thiers died on December 11, in the house in the Rue St. Georges rebuilt at the public expense after its destruction by the Commune. She was born in Aix in 1818, and at an early age was married to M. Thiers, then Minister of the Interior, with whom her life was connected up to its last moments, for, while she lived on his fame during his lifetime, she has lived on his memory since his decease. She may be said to have contributed to his fame, for her father and mother, M. and Madame Dosne, the former a banker, had taken a practical interest in the early career of the historian and statesman. M. Thiers, from the date of his marriage, never disappeared below the political horizon. Madame Thiers seconded his efforts with intelligence, and sympathised in all his aims. Later on, when he was in power, Madame Thiers's enemies reproached her with having alienated by her haughtiness many persons disposed to make advances to M. Thiers, but these reminiscences have almost faded away, and from the foundation of the Second Empire, which afforded M. Thiers compulsory leisure, Madame Thiers became again known as an attentive mistress of the household, lighting up her husband's drawing-room with her vivacity and powers of repartee. But it was more especially during the two years of M. Thiers's Presidency that attention was directed towards her; though she did not succeed in winning during that period so much esteem as she might have done or as she deserved. In her more intimate relations, and apart from official pomp, she retained her pristine amiability and vivacity, and while displaying a perhaps rather too evident taste for power, she always preserved the same lucidity of judgment which made her M. Thiers's most enlightened and influential counsellor. It was only after his fall that she drifted into such bitterness that her

regrets and recriminations made her husband's best friends almost indifferent to the catastrophe. She continued thus to look back bitterly on the past till M. Thiers's death deprived her of all hope of regaining power. Thenceforth she atoned for all the weaknesses of that transient period by the ardour with which she devoted herself to the memory of the great man she, and with her the whole country, had lost. The inauguration of the statue at Nancy was an immense consolation for her, and the emotion she experienced on that occasion was so great that she almost gave way under it. That was the time when the glory of the liberator of the territory was at its height. The Communists had not returned to lift up their voices against the admirers of M. Thiers; the Government still ventured to pride itself on following in his footsteps. Ministers officially charged to represent the Republic at the ceremony proclaimed the benefits France owed to him whose name she bore, and amid the population of Eastern France, which remained attached to the memory of him who had delivered them from the presence of their enemies, Madame Thiers could say to herself that all hearts in France would thenceforth throb at the recollection of her husband. The unveiling of the Thiers statue at St. Germain in September levelled a painful blow at this illusion. The spectacle was heartbreaking, and in presence of that statue Madame Thiers could perceive that the hour of ingratitude, almost of oblivion, had struck too soon for the honour of a country owing so much to the most eminent of its men of this generation. There were but few friends present. It rained in torrents. The crowd, stirred up by agitators scattered through it, was on the whole hostile to the orators. M. Jules Simon's voice was well-nigh drowned in murmurs. A partisan of the Commune protested in the name of patriots against the erection of the statue. Madame Thiers seemed struck by the desolate aspect of the place, the coldness of the public, the absence of all official *éclat*, and the absent-minded preoccupation of those around her. At one moment there was a slight contraction of the mouth, an apparent shiver at the damp, cold weather. She had, perhaps, a presentiment of her end being near, and may have thought she had lived too long, seeing that the forgetfulness of her fellow-citizens was already beginning to paralyse her efforts to perpetuate the memory of the great citizen.

Rev. Charles Edmund Buck-Keene, of Swyncombe, was born in 1792. He was educated at Eton and at Christ Church; took a double third-class, and was elected a Fellow of All Souls' College in 1814; graduated B.A. 1815, and M.A. 1819. In 1822 he was presented by his college to the rectory of Buckland, Surrey, having previously married Rebecca Frances, second daughter of Sir George Shiffner, Bart., of Coombe, Sussex. He was also Sub-Dean of Wells Cathedral until August 1847, when he resigned the emoluments of it to provide a stipend for the incumbent of Wookey, Somersetshire, where a new church had been built. Mr. Keene resigned Buckland on the death of his father in 1834, when he succeeded to the family estates at Linton, in Cambridgeshire, at Bentley, in Suffolk, where he was also patron of the living, and at Swyncombe, in Oxfordshire. On this event he departed from what had been the habit and customs of his race, which, hitherto, had been always devoted to Cambridge county and University, and having inherited the Swyncombe property (for which he assumed the additional name and arms of Ruck) from his mother, and having been himself educated at Oxford, he came to reside in Oxfordshire. In time he pulled down his house in Cambridgeshire, and, settling himself down in the bleak hills of the Chiltern, left the stamp of a refined civilisation upon the parish and neighbourhood which they had not previously possessed. His great-grandfather, Charles Keene, Esq., of King's Lynn, had been Mayor of that town; and of his two sons, the elder, Benjamin, was a distinguished diplomatist, and the younger a Bishop. Benjamin was educated at Pembroke College, Cambridge, and was made a Knight of the Bath in 1754 for his long and eminent services as Ambassador at Madrid. His diplomatic career is always mentioned by Lord Chesterfield, H. Walpole, and in other memoirs of the period, in terms of high praise. Dying without issue, December 15, 1757, he left his fortune to his brother. Edmund was born in 1713, and passed on from the Charter House, in 1730, to Caius College, Cambridge. In 1739 he became a Fellow of Peterhouse, and Master of the College in December 1748. Before that time (1736), through his brother's friendship with Sir Robert Walpole, he had been nominated one of the Preachers at Whitehall, and had succeeded Bishop Butler in the rich living of Stanhope. In 1752 he was

appointed to the see of Chester, and in 1764 refused the Primacy of Ireland. In 1770 he was translated to the bishopric of Ely. He married a daughter of Lancelot Andrewes, of Cheapside and Edmonton—a descendant of the Bishop of that name—and by her had one son and one daughter. The former graduated M.A. at Peterhouse, Cambridge, in 1774, and subsequently represented Cambridgeshire in Parliament. He married Mary, only daughter of George Ruck, Esq., of Swyncombe, by whom he had two sons—Benjamin, a captain in the Army, who died without issue (having married a daughter of John Farre, Esq., of Wormsley) in 1820, and Charles Edmund, the subject of this notice, who died on December 12, having survived his wife scarcely nine months.

Miss Maria Catherine Innes died on December 13, at her residence in Thorne Road, South Lambeth, in the 85th year of her age. This lady was the last survivor of three maiden sisters, the daughters of a gentleman who, though a cadet of the noble house of Roxburghe, came up to London to push his fortunes in trade, and carried on a business near the corner of Chancery Lane and Fleet Street. Left orphans at an early age, and being fond of heraldic and genealogical pursuits, in 1827 they brought out jointly a little Peerage, which was named *Sams's Peerage*, after its publisher in St. James's Street, but which three years later had its title altered to that of *Lodge*, having been placed by the Misses Innes under the ostensible editorship of Mr. Edmund Lodge, Norroy King of Arms. The work obtained the patronage of the Duchess of Kent and of her daughter the Princess Victoria, and it has retained the special patronage of her Majesty down to the present hour. The Misses Innes continued to edit *Lodge* till the year 1865, when two of them died and the third became afflicted with partial blindness.

The Earl of Crawford and Balcarres died on December 13, at the Villa Enalmira, Florence. He was born in 1812. In 1846 he married the eldest daughter of Lieutenant-General James Lindsay, of Balcarres, and he succeeded his father as eighth earl in 1869. He took no part in politics, the investigation of many abstruse branches of intellectual research being the occupation of his life. Much of this work is tolerably well known through his published books, but such was the unflagging

energy with which he devoted himself to his favourite subjects that a vast store of valuable information was always accumulating with the view of completing the most exhaustive and comprehensive treatises upon certain subjects, which are now left unfinished in manuscript. The great study of his later years had been in the comparison of the ancient religions of the world, in the pursuit of which he had collected together materials from all the great libraries of Europe for this book, which he proposed to call the "Religion of Noah." While these researches were going on he was forming a library of his own, which is considered to be quite unrivalled among private collections for comprehensiveness in all the literatures of the world and for the many rare and unique editions it contains. To mention only a few in this magnificent library of more than 50,000 volumes and MSS., which is at Haigh Hall, near Wigan, there are the "Catholicon," the only known book from Gutenberg's second press, which is printed on vellum and dated 1460; the "Mazarin Bible," the first book printed by typography, by Gutenberg, undated, but printed probably about 1450-54; the "Cicero de Officiis," 1465, the first printed classic; the famous block book "Speculum," on which are founded the Dutch claims to priority in the invention of printing; his collections of Bibles, mostly first editions, and in various languages, and many containing the "parent texts"; a singularly large collection of the romances of chivalry, including the Arthurian and Carolingian cycles, nearly all of which are first editions and in various languages; and an extraordinary number of ancient manuscripts in Coptic, Arabic, Cufic-Arabic, Syriac, Persian, Japanese, and Chinese—among the latter the great "Cyclopædia" and all the standard works of a first-rate Japanese library. For this splendid collection he had built a spacious new library at his house, Dun Echt, Aberdeenshire, which, unhappily, he never enjoyed the happiness of seeing filled with the treasures of his life-long studies. The first book which Lord Crawford published was the two volumes of letters from the Holy Land, written while travelling in Palestine as Lord Lindsay, a young man of twenty-four, and published in 1838. His next work, in 1846, attracted much attention under the title of "Progression by Antagonism," in which he enunciated the principle of action involved in the contest

of opposing intellectual forces, illustrating his views by means of a diagram which he called "a chart of human nature," the second title of this book being "A Theory Involving Considerations touching the Present Position, Duties, and Destiny of Great Britain." It was in this small book that Lord Crawford displayed his capacity for dealing with large and difficult questions of a religious and political bearing and the philosophical spirit in which they should be considered. His well-known "Sketches of Christian Art," which was published in three volumes in 1847, almost contemporaneously with "L'Art Chrétien" of M. Rio on the same subject, has taken its place with it and the "Iconographie Chrétienne" of M. Didron among the classics of art literature, and first excited the interest in that important subject which has since been so well maintained. With these studies of art Lord Crawford united those of genealogy and heraldry, in which he distinguished himself by his exhaustive power of analysis and the clear expositions of intricate subjects for which in conversation he was so remarkable. The "Lives of the Lindsays," in four volumes, published in 1858, has passed through three editions and continues to be read as one of the most interesting works of its kind, and quite a model of what ought to be followed in the writing of family annals; but his elaborate statement of the claim he made to the revival of the ancient Dukedom of Montrose, which amounts to a complete treatise on Scotch Peerage law, remains, we believe, still among his manuscripts. His strong feeling for theological studies was evinced by a rather thick octavo on "Scepticism, a Retrogressive Movement in Theology and Philosophy, as contrasted with the Church of England, Catholic (at once) and Protestant, Stable and Progressive," published in 1861; followed in 1870 by a volume of letters on "Œcumenicity in relation to the Church of England," a work of great learning and research, especially in reference to the Ultramontane and Gallican theories of œcumenicity, which was illustrated with a chart classifying all the branches which have sprung from the ancient Eastern and Western Church. Lord Crawford had also taken up a very difficult branch of archaeology in the translation of Etruscan inscriptions, many of which he published in a volume upon the subject in 1872. His last work, published in 1876, was a

contrast to all which had preceded it, for it was nothing less than a poem in ten books, called "Argo, or the Quest of the Golden Fleece," upon which he bestowed all his learned acquaintance with the ancient Greek myths.

William Lacon Childe, of Kinlet Hall, Shropshire, and of Kyre, Worcester-shire, who died on December 15, was the only son of the late Mr. William Baldwyn (who assumed the surname and arms of Childe only) by his marriage with Annabella, second daughter of Sir Charlton Leighton, of Loton Park, Shropshire, and was born on January 3, 1786. He was educated at Harrow, where he was schoolfellow of the late Lord Palmerston, Sir Robert Peel, Lord Byron, and the late Duke of Sutherland. He afterwards entered Christ Church, Oxford. He sat in the House of Commons, in the Conservative interest, as Member for Wenlock, in the first Parliament of George IV. He moved the address in reply to the King's Speech in February 1823. Mr. Childe was a magistrate and Deputy-Lieutenant for the counties of Worcester and Salop, and served as High Sheriff of the latter county in 1859; he was also a magistrate for the county of Hereford. He married in 1807 Harriet, second daughter of the late Mr. William Cludde, of Orleton, Shropshire, by whom he has left a family. He is succeeded in his estates by his eldest son and heir, Mr. William Lacon Childe, who was born in 1810, and married in 1839 Barbara, daughter of the late Mr. Thomas Giffard, of Chillington, Staffordshire.

Mlle. de Montgolfier, whose death occurred on December 16, at the age of 91, was the daughter of Etienne de Montgolfier, the inventor of the balloon. The father, who was the scion of an opulent commercial family of Lyons, was ennobled by Louis XVI. for his scientific inventions, of which the balloon was but one; and the daughter, who survived him for eighty-one years, lived to see communication maintained by balloons during the siege of Paris. In 1870 Mlle. de Montgolfier resisted all persuasion to quit Paris on the approach of the Prussians. She lived on the south side of the city—the side exposed to the Prussian batteries; and she remained with her maid and a youth in her service, the only tenants of a large, old house of many flats whence every other had fled. Old as she was, even then she went

incessantly to visit the wounded in the ambulances, and was found at the end of the siege to have given away all her house linen and every article useful for the sick. Mdle. de Montgolfier lived in the summer at La Celle St. Cloud. In her house was a fine medallion, by Houdin, of her father and her uncle, Joseph de Montgolfier. The medallion was unbroken during the occupation of the house by the Germans, but the names of the two famous Frenchmen were carefully obliterated. Mdle. de Montgolfier was the patroness of Béranger, published a volume of songs, and left a fine collection of autographs, including letters written by Silvio Pellico with his blood.

Francis Trevelyan Buckland was the eldest son of the Very Rev. William Buckland, D.D., Dean of Westminster. He was born on December 17, 1826, and was educated at Winchester and at Christ Church, Oxford. The son of the celebrated Dean Buckland, whose famous "Bridgewater Treatise" laid the foundation of the new school of geologists, he inherited much of his father's originality and keen powers of observation, and from boyhood developed a strong bias towards natural history and physical science. Curiously enough, he never pursued his father's favourite study of geology, but applied himself to the medical profession. Having studied medicine in Paris and London, and served as house surgeon to St. George's Hospital, he entered the 2nd Life Guards in 1854 as assistant-surgeon. Mr. Buckland's passion for natural history, and especially the piscicultural branches of the science, soon absorbed all his thoughts. He left the Life Guards in 1863, and for a time was a constant contributor to the *Field* newspaper and other periodicals. In 1866, with the late Mr. W. Pfenning, the first Inspector of English Salmon Fisheries, Mr. Buckland projected and started *Land and Water*. He conducted its intelligence in regard to sea and river fisheries and practical natural history, and contributed to it up to the very day before his death. In 1867 Mr. Buckland was appointed Inspector of English Salmon Fisheries, and since then his labours as a public servant were unremitting. No one did more to popularise the subject of fishery cultivation and preservation, not only in England but throughout the civilised world. His advice was sought by the Governments of Russia, Germany, France, America, &c., as well as by our

colonies. His efforts to introduce salmon and trout into the Australian and New Zealand waters, though often baffled, were at length crowned with success. In 1870 Mr. Buckland was appointed Special Commissioner for the Salmon Fisheries of Scotland. He published a report on the Norfolk fisheries which led to the Norfolk and Suffolk Fisheries Act of 1877. In the same year he was one of a Commission to inquire into the crab and lobster fisheries of England and Scotland, which resulted in an Act of Parliament for their protection. In 1877 he also served on a Commission of inquiry into the herring fisheries. In the next year he was engaged upon the Commission relative to the sea fisheries around England and Wales, an admirable report upon which was published by Mr. Frank Buckland and Mr. Spencer Walpole. Mr. Buckland's researches into the mysterious salmon disease attracted much attention. But it would be impossible to give a full list of his contributions towards the development and preservation of our fisheries, salt water and fresh. His fishery museum at South Kensington, collected laboriously for years at his own expense, is a monument of the unflagging industry with which he sought by all means to gather facts and information in connection with the fisheries for the public benefit. As one of the most charming of popular writers on natural history Mr. Buckland has endeared himself to thousands who never saw him. His four series of "Curiosities of Natural History" were first published in 1857. Several editions have since appeared. A "Familiar History of British Fishes" appeared in 1873, the "Logbook of a Fisherman and Zoologist" in 1876, and a magnificent edition of Gilbert White's *Selborne*, largely annotated, in 1879. Mr. Buckland's delightful weekly contributions to natural history, descriptive of every strange animal, bird, or fish found in the United Kingdom and forwarded to him, will be missed for the future, and his death will leave a blank not easily filled up. Mr. Buckland was not a follower of the new school of naturalists, and frequently announced his dissent from the views and conclusions of Mr. Darwin. He died at his residence in Albany Street, Regent's Park, on December 19.

Mary Ann Evans, better known as George Eliot, was born at Griff, near Nuneaton, on November 22, 1820. Her father was a land agent and

surveyor to Lords Aylesford and Liford, Mr. Ch. Newdegate, and other Warwickshire landowners. Mary Ann, or, as she preferred to write her name in later years, Marian, Evans was the youngest of three children of a second marriage. Her first education was obtained at Miss Franklin's school at Coventry, and she is reported by those who knew her to have been a remarkable child in many ways—thoughtful, earnest, and endowed with a tenacious memory. At the age of twelve she was teaching in a Sunday School which was held in a cottage near her father's house, and all her letters from that time down to the age of twenty show her to have been imbued with strong Evangelical sentiments—in fact, in one written years afterwards she admits herself to have been a strong Calvinist. In 1841, all her brothers and sisters having married, her father removed to Foleshill, near Coventry. Here her real education began. She took lessons in Greek and Latin from the head-master of the Coventry Grammar School, taught herself Hebrew, and made herself mistress of French, German, and Italian through the aid of Signor Brezzi. She devoted herself also to music, and in after years became an admirable pianoforte-player. It was at Coventry also that her literary life began. At Rosehill, the home of Mr. and Mrs. Charles Bray, she met Emerson, Froude, George Combe; and her religious views then underwent a change which led to strongly expressed differences of opinion at a time when toleration by parents in such matters was less frequent than it has since become. Her first literary work was the continuation of a translation of Strauss's "Leben Jesu," commenced by Mrs. Hennell, which was completed in 1846. Although Miss Evans's name did not appear upon the title-page of her first or any subsequent edition of the translation, its authorship was of course known to her father, and a breach ensued which seems never to have been spanned, although Miss Evans continued to reside in Coventry, translating Feuerbach's "Essence of Christianity" and Spinoza's "Ethics" (never published), until 1849, when her father died. She then went abroad with her friends the Brays, and by them was left behind at Geneva, where she remained about eighteen months. In 1851 she returned to London, taking up her abode in the house of Mr. John Chapman, the editor of the *Westminster Review*, who with his wife received boarders into their house. This connection led to her be-

coming attached to the Review as sub-editor, but for some time her principal work was writing the *précis* of contemporary literature. Various articles in the *Westminster Review* from 1852 onwards have been attributed to her, but it was not until 1856 that she sent anonymously to the editor of *Blackwood's Magazine* "The Sad Fortunes of Amos Barton," or the first of a series of "Scenes of Clerical Life." The first instalment of these tales appeared in January 1857, and at once arrested public attention and obtained the editor's praise, who some months later was informed that he was to know the author in future as George Eliot. Mr. John Blackwood was as ignorant of the author's identity as was all the world except Mr. G. H. Lewes and one or two others. The editor's own suspicions went from Professor Owen to Lord Lytton, but they were mere guesses. Dickens was the first author of note who came to the conclusion that the author was a woman. The "Scenes" came to an end in November 1857, and in the February following the author sent the first chapters of "Adam Bede." In the course of the spring of that year George Eliot paid a visit to Germany, and the second volume was sent home from Munich. By October the whole work was in the publisher's hands, and in compliance with the author's wish it was published in January 1859 in a complete form. The success which attended the publication of this powerful work was undoubted. By April a second edition had been called for and was nearly exhausted. The curiosity of the public as to the personality of the author was greatly excited, but possibly, had it not been for the unwarrantable claims put forth for some and by others, George Eliot's incognito might have been preserved some time longer. A singular controversy arose in the *Times* on the subject. On April 15, 1859, a few days after it had reviewed "Adam Bede," and conjectured that the author, whether man or woman, could neither be young nor inexperienced, the following letter was received and published: "Sir,—The author of 'Scenes of Clerical Life' and 'Adam Bede,' is Mr. Joseph Liggins, of Nuneaton, Warwickshire. You may easily satisfy yourself of my correctness by enquiring of any one in that neighbourhood. Mr. Liggins himself and the characters whom he paints are as familiar there as the twin spires of Coventry. Yours obediently, H. ANDERS, Rector of Kirkby." This produced on the next

day the following rejoinder from the real George Eliot:—"Sir,—The Rev. H. Anders has, with questionable delicacy and unquestionable inaccuracy, assured the world through your columns that the author of 'Scenes of Clerical Life' and 'Adam Bede' is Mr. Joseph Liggins, of Nuneaton. I beg distinctly to deny that statement. I declare on my honour that that gentleman never saw a line of those works until they were printed, nor had he any knowledge of them whatever. Allow me to ask whether the act of publishing a book deprives a man of all claim to the courtesies usual among gentlemen? If not, the attempt to pry into what is obviously meant to be withheld—my name—and to publish the rumours which such prying may give rise to, seems to me quite indefensible, still more so to state these rumours as ascertained truths. I am, Sir, yours, &c., GEORGE ELIOT." Notwithstanding this protest, the secret soon leaked out. Long before "The Mill on the Floss," the second great novel of the series which has immortalised the name of George Eliot, was published in 1860, it was well known, in literary circles at least, that George Eliot was none other than Marian Evans, the Westminster Reviewer and translator of Strauss, better known to her intimates as Mrs. Lewes; for by this time was established that close association and literary friendship with the gifted George Henry Lewes, which terminated only with the death of the latter a little more than two years before her own. "The Mill on the Floss," in which some critics discerned a falling off from "Adam Bede," and others the richer maturity of a splendid genius, was followed, in 1861, by "Silas Marner," the shortest, but, as many think, the most perfect, of all George Eliot's novels. "Romola"—that marvellous tale of Florence in the time of Savonarola, in which the author essayed a task harder by far than that of Thackeray in "Esmond," and accomplished it triumphantly—followed in 1863. In "Felix Holt," published in 1866, George Eliot returned to English life, but somehow failed to recover that sureness of touch and blitheness of humour which gave Mrs. Poyser and Mrs. Tulliver to the world. After a silence of five years, broken only by several poems, not, indeed, unworthy of her genius, but still deriving more repute from her name than they conferred upon it, George Eliot returned to fiction with "Middlemarch," which was published in numbers during 1871

and 1872. "Middlemarch" carried the reader back once more to the Midlands, and gave us the family portrait of Caleb Garth, and perhaps a sketch in his daughter of the early life of the author herself; but the satire was more copious and less kindly than in the earlier novels, and the humour, though still abundant, was not so genial as it had been. "The Legend of Jubal," with other poems, followed in 1874, and "Daniel Deronda," the author's last novel, was published in 1876. "Daniel Deronda" was "caviare to the general;" none but George Eliot could have written it, perhaps, but we almost may hazard the conjecture that if any other had written it, few would have read it. It is the great work of a great writer, very instructive and profound, but, regarded as a novel, it commits the unpardonable sin of failing to entertain. The last work of George Eliot was "Theophrastus Such," published in the course of last year. Fiction in its ordinary sense is here abandoned for the heavier and less attractive style of the essayist and thinker. In May of the present year she married Mr. John Cross, an old friend of her own and of Mr. Lewes's, and together they passed the summer in Italy, where her husband was attacked by Italian fever, requiring her constant care. On their return after a short stay at Witley, they took up their abode in their new home in Cheyne Walk, Chelsea. On Sunday, December 19, she had received her friends as usual, but in the night was seized by a chill, which attacked the larynx. No danger was anticipated until the evening of Wednesday, when the doctors found that inflammation of the heart and pericardium had supervened, and that death was not only inevitable but near at hand. She died quite peacefully about 10 P.M. on December 22.

Rev. Mackenzie Edward Charles Walcott, B.D., Precentor of Chichester Cathedral, F.S.A., &c., died on December 22, in London. The deceased, who was well known in the antiquarian world, was the only son of the late Admiral John Edward Walcott, of Winkton, Hampshire, formerly M.P. for Christchurch, by his marriage with Charlotte Anne, daughter of Colonel John Nelley, of the Bengal Artillery. He was born in 1822, and was educated at Winchester and Exeter College, Oxford, where he took his Bachelor's degree as a third-class in 1844, and proceeded M.A. in due course. He was for some years

curate of St. Margaret's and evening lecturer at St. James's, Westminster; was appointed Precentor and Prebendary of Chichester Cathedral in 1863; and was minister of Berkeley Chapel, Mayfair, from 1867-70. Mr. Walcott was the author of a large number of antiquarian and ecclesiological works, among which are "The History of St. Margaret's Church, Westminster," "Memorials of Westminster," "Handbook for St. James's, Westminster," "William of Wykeham and his Colleges," "Cathedrals of the United Kingdom," "Ruins of the United Kingdom," &c. He was also the author of several poems and sermons, and of papers in the "Transactions" of the Royal Institute of British Architects, British Archaeological Association, and of the Royal Society of Literature. He was a Fellow of the Royal Society of Northern Antiquaries, and a member of several foreign learned societies. Mr. Walcott married, in 1852, Rose Anne, daughter of Major Frederick Brownlow, of the 73rd Highlanders, and niece of Charles, first Lord Lurgan.

Mauro Macchi must be added to the long list of illustrious Italians who, after a lifetime devoted to their country's resurrection, passed away during the year 1880. Macchi was a Republican in theory, but an Italian before all things; and amid the strife of Italian party warfare he was able, with truth, to make the proud boast that he never had an enemy. He was born at Milan in 1818, of comparatively poor parents, whose ambition it was that he should become a parish priest; but, after completing his ecclesiastical studies, he renounced the habit, devoted himself to literature, and, at the age of 24, filled the chair of rhetoric. At the same time he contributed scientific articles to the *Politecnico* and the *Spettatore Industriale* of Milan. Adopting and advocating Mazzini's idea of an united Italy, he fell under the suspicion of the Austrian police, and in 1847 was arrested on a charge of high treason. Escaping from prison by unexpected and unknown help, he fled to Turin and collaborated with Brofferio on the *Messagere Turinese*. He then took an active part in the war of 1848, but after the disaster of Novara his writings as a journalist were found to be too advanced for the Piedmontese Government, and he was obliged to go into exile. Permitted to return by Cavour, he participated actively in the events which followed the war of 1859.

He became secretary of the Ministry of War under the dictatorship of Farini, and in 1860, taking the place of Bertani as president of the Comitato di Previdenza, he displayed great energy in sending arms and ammunition to Garibaldi. In 1861 he was elected to Parliament for Cremona. He took his place on the Extreme Left, and was uninterruptedly returned by the same constituency until his elevation to the Senate in 1879. He continued his contributions to Italian journals and periodicals until within a few months of his death, which took place on December 24. In 1867 he commenced the publication of a work entitled *Annuario Storico Italiano*, a yearly duodecimo volume of nearly 700 pages, containing an exhaustive review of the political, religious, social, commercial, literary, and artistic events during the twelve months, an invaluable contemporary contribution to the history of Italy.

Charles Edward Stuart, Comte d'Albanie, died on board a steamer coming from Bordeaux on December 24. The body was taken on shore and temporarily interred on the banks of the Garonne preparatory to being brought to Scotland to be placed by the side of his brother, John Sobieski Stolberg Stuart, who is buried on Lord Lovat's estate at Eskdale. The Comte d'Albanie was in his 82nd year; he had married, in 1822, Anne, widow of Colonel Gardner, and daughter of Hon. John Beresford, second son of the Earl of Tyrone. His father, James Stuart, Comte d'Albanie, was believed by some, but on very slender grounds, to have been the legitimate son of Prince Charles Edward Stuart, "the Young Pretender," by the Princess Louise Clementina Sobieski of Stolberg. James Stuart, who died in 1839, left two sons and one daughter:—John Sobieski, who died without children; the Countess Catherine Matilda, married to Count Ferdinand de Lancastro of the Austrian service, who died in London in 1873; and the subject of the present notice. The Comte d'Albanie leaves four children; one son—Charles Edward, formerly in the Austrian service, who married in 1874 Lady Alice Mary Hay—and three daughters, one of whom is dead, one a nun of the Order of the Passionists, and the third married to Edward von Platt of the Austrian Imperial Bodyguard. According to another version, the first Comte d'Albanie—James Stuart—was

known as Lieutenant Thomas Allen, R.N., a son of Admiral Allen. This officer—for reasons which have never been clearly explained—conceived that he was only the foster or adopted son of the Admiral, and that in reality he was the son of the Young Pretender; and, acting on this belief, he assumed the name and title of James Stuart, Count d'Albanie; but, even should he have been able to establish any claim to the supposed paternity, the title he assumed would suggest that his grandmother might have been Clementina Walkenshaw, the Old Pretender's mistress, on whose daughter he conferred the shadowy title of Duchess of Albany. The whole of this interesting myth or imposture is to be found fully discussed in the *Quarterly Review* of June 1847, vol. lxxxi., p. 57.

Herr Anderwert, one of the members of the Federal Council, present Vice-President and President-elect of the Swiss Confederation for 1881, was born at Frauenfeld, in Thurgau, of which district his father was Landamann in 1828. Like most Swiss statesmen, he was educated for the law. After studying some years at the Lyceum of Constance and the Lausanne Academy, he completed his legal education at the Universities of Heidelberg and Berlin, and subsequently practised as an advocate in his native canton. He first entered political life as a member of the Great Council of Thurgau, of which body he became President. From 1863-74 he served in the National Assembly as one of the representatives of his canton, and, after the adoption of the new constitution in the year last named, he was elected Judge of the Federal Tribunal, a position which he exchanged, in 1876, for that of member of the Federal Council and head of the department of Justice and Police. Herr Anderwert took an active part in the constitutional revisions of 1872 and 1874, and in the organisation of the Federal Tribunal, one of the most valuable and useful institutions which Switzerland possesses. His political opinions were very advanced, and when he entered the Government four years ago, the party to which he belonged—the Radical Centralisers—expected more from him than he was able to accomplish, or, perhaps, thought it expedient to attempt. Power exercised upon him the same moderating influence which it exercises upon all men who have any sense of responsibility, and his proceedings as a mem-

ber of the executive were far from squaring with the theories he had advocated as the leader of a party. This drew upon him the hostility of many of his former friends. He was stigmatised as a renegade and a traitor, and, during the whole of his tenure of office, several organs of the Radical Press made him an object of incessant attack. One result of this hostility was the comparatively narrow majority by which he was elected to the Presidency of the Confederation, his majority being only 101, while Herr Numa Droz was chosen Vice-President by a majority of 138. This proof of his unpopularity—for the election of the actual Vice-President to the Presidency is almost invariably looked upon as a matter of course—together with the continued attacks of a portion of the press, seems to have completely upset his mental balance. He fell into a state of profound melancholy, became morose, taciturn, and suspicious. He could not sleep, and seemed incapable of sustained mental or physical exertion. The day of his death Herr Anderwert wrote a letter to his sister which concluded with these words, "They want a victim; well, let it be so." He shot himself with a revolver on the public promenade at Berne soon after nightfall on December 25.

John Joseph Mechi, the distinguished agriculturist, died on December 26, at his residence, Tiptree Hall, Essex, in his 79th year. He was the eldest son of Mr. James Mechi, of Bologna, Italy, who in early life settled in England, and, having been naturalised, obtained a post in the household of George III. His mother was Elizabeth, daughter of Mr. J. Beyer, of Poland Street, London, and he was born in the year 1802. At the age of 16 Mr. Mechi was placed as a clerk in a mercantile house in the Newfoundland trade, and while thus occupied contrived to turn his leisure time to profitable account by selling, among his friends and acquaintances in the city, a small and inexpensive article of which he had bought the patent, and by the sale of which he was enabled, about the year 1827, to set up in business on his own account in a small shop in Leadenhall Street. In the course of a few years he realised a handsome fortune by the "magic razor-strop" which bears his name. In 1840, having attentively studied the defects of English farming, he resolved to try his hand on improvements in agriculture, and accordingly bought a small farm of some

170 acres at Tiptree Heath in Essex, and here carried out his system of deep drainage and other methods of cultivation, so that in a few years his model farm was brought into a state of productiveness which yielded annually a handsome profit. In 1856 Mr. Mechi was appointed Sheriff of London, and in the following year he was elected an alderman, but he resigned his aldermanic gown about eight years afterwards. About the same time his services to the science of agriculture were rewarded by the presentation to him of a handsome testimonial of the value of 500*l.*, subscribed for by noblemen and gentlemen at home and abroad. Mr. Mechi was for many years a member of the Council of the Society of Arts, and was a juror in the Department of Art and Science at the Great Exhibition of 1851 and at the Industrial Exhibition at Paris in 1854, to which he was specially sent by her Majesty's Government. In 1858 he published an account of his improved agricultural system, of which, in 1864, a new and enlarged edition was issued under the title of "How to Farm Profitably." Mr. Mechi was a magistrate for Middlesex and a Commissioner of Lieutenancy for the City of London.

Dr. Robert Bullock Marsham, Warden of Merton College, Oxford, died on December 27, in the 95th year of his age, at his residence, Caversfield House, near Bicester. The eldest son of the late Hon. and Rev. Jacob Marsham, Canon of Windsor (brother of the first Earl of Romney), by his marriage with Amelia Frances, only daughter and heir of the late Mr. Joseph Bullock, of Caversfield, he was born in June 1786, and was educated at Eton and at Christ Church, Oxford, where he took his Bachelor's degree in 1807, the first year in which a formal class list was published, in which, however, the name of R. B. Marsham did not appear. He was nevertheless soon afterwards elected to a Fellowship at Merton College. In 1826 he was chosen to fill the Wardenship—a post to which, even half a century ago, laymen were eligible. He was the Senior Head of a House at Oxford, Dr. Hawkins, the Provost of Oriel, having been chosen two years later.

Dr. Marsham was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant for Oxfordshire, and he was an unsuccessful candidate for the representation of Oxford University against Mr. Gladstone, at the general election of 1852, being put up by the Conservative party. Dr. Marsham married, in 1828, Jessie, daughter of the late General David Dewar, of Gilston House, Fifeshire, and widow of Sir John C. Anstruther.

Dr. Arnold Ruge died at Brighton on December 31, at the age of 77. Born in the island of Rugen during the Napoleonic wars, he made his first appearance in political life at Jena, where as a student he joined a revolutionary society and was imprisoned for five years in the fortress of Colberg. He cultivated Greek literature and metaphysics during his imprisonment, and published in 1830 a translation of the "Ædipus" of Sophocles, as well as a drama of his own, and an elaborate essay on the "Ethics" of Plato, whose works were his particular study. He next studied Hegel, and founded at Halle, in conjunction with Ecktermayer, who soon afterwards died, a review based upon the lines of the Hegelian doctrines. This review became noted for its bold advocacy of German unity and freedom. The enmity of the Prussian Government caused his removal to Saxony and thence to Paris, where, among other works, he published a German translation of "The Letters of Junius." In 1848 he was elected deputy for Breslau to the Frankfort Parliament, where he was the recognised leader of the Extreme Left. On the collapse of this attempt at a united German Parliament, Ruge returned to Berlin and founded the *Reform*, an organ of the Extreme Left of the Prussian Diet. This was promptly suppressed by the reactionary Government, and the founder, much reduced in fortune, fled to England in 1849. Since 1850 he lived at Brighton as a teacher of languages and correspondent of the German Press, but about three years since Prince Bismarck settled upon him a pension of 150*l.* a year. Dr. Ruge was an ardent supporter of the Liberal party in England as elsewhere, and formerly took a prominent part in the elections in Brighton.

On December 1, at Folkestone, aged 59, **James Cosmo Melville**, Assistant Under-Secretary of State for India from 1858-72. On December 1, at Accra, **Herbert Taylor Usher, C.M.G.**, Governor of the Gold Coast Colony. He began his official life in the Commissariat; but after the close of the Crimean War entered the Colonial Department, filling in succession numerous important posts on the West

Coast of Africa. From 1872-75 he was Lieutenant-Governor of Tobago, whence he was transferred to Labuan. In 1879 he was made Governor of the Gold Coast Colony. On December 4, at Versailles, aged 36, **M. Albert Joly**, a deputy and leader of the French Bar. He had risen from humble circumstances, and distinguished himself by the manner in which he had defended Rossel and Rochefort, when brought before the military courts-martial after the defeat of the Paris Commune. In 1876 he was elected for his native town of Versailles. On December 4, at Tarbes, **General de Bessye**, director of the French Government cannon-factory at Tarbes, and inventor of the mitrailleuse. On December 9, at Oxford, **Robert L. Cotton, D.D.**, aged 86, Provost of Worcester College, Oxford, to which post he had been promoted in 1839 by the Duke of Wellington. In his younger days he had been invited by Pusey (who subsequently became his brother-in-law) to take part in the "Tracts for the Times," but Dr. Cotton's sympathies were strongly enlisted on the Evangelical side of the controversy. On December 10, at Kensington, aged 70, **Professor Thomas Rymer Jones, F.R.S.** He was forced to abandon the practice of medicine, for which he had qualified himself, on account of his deafness, and devoted himself wholly to the study of comparative anatomy. He was the first Professor in that branch at King's College, London, on its foundation, and in 1840 was appointed Fullerian Professor of Physiology at the Royal Institution. He was an attractive lecturer and a sound guide. On December 10, at Bombay, aged 26, **Hon. Richard Westons**, third son of the late Lord Rossmore and heir presumptive to the estates and title. Having failed to pass the necessary examination for a commission in the Army, he enlisted in the 4th Dragoon Guards, and in January 1880 he was for good conduct and ability promoted from the ranks to be second lieutenant in the 9th Lancers. On December 11, at Berlin, aged 64, **Karl Georg Burns**, a distinguished Professor of Roman law. Born at Helmstedt, in Brunswick, he studied law successively at Göttingen, Heidelberg, and Tübingen; thence he went as Professor to Rostock in 1849, and to Halle in 1851. In 1859 he returned to Tübingen, but in 1861 was offered the chair at Berlin University vacant by the death of Savigny. On December 14, in South Africa, killed in action with the Tembus, **Commandant Wilhelm von Linsengen, C.M.G.** He entered the Hanoverian Army in 1840, and in 1854 was appointed Captain of the British German Legion. In 1856 he went with part of it to the Cape of Good Hope, and has taken part in all subsequent wars in that district, Lord Chelmsford and Sir Evelyn Wood repeatedly naming him in their despatches for his active services. He was killed with his son, whilst endeavouring to save a young trooper who, having been dismounted, was too closely pursued by the enemy. On December 18, at Paris, aged 88, **Michel Chasles**, a geometrician of some note, and a Professor at the Sorbonne. On December 18, **James C. Watson**, a Canadian by birth. Succeeded, in 1863, Professor Brunnow as Director of the Ann Arbor University, Michigan, U.S. Between 1863 and 1877 he discovered twenty-two small planets between Mars and Jupiter. His most important work, "Theoretical Astronomy," published in 1868, gained him a high place amongst contemporary astronomers. On December 19, at Branksome Towers, Bournemouth, the **Duchess of Westminster**. Lady Constance Gertrude Leveson-Gower, the fourth daughter of George Granville, second Duke of Sutherland, was born June 16, 1834; married on April 28, 1852, to Hugh Lupus, Earl Grosvenor, successively Marquess and Duke of Westminster. She was distinguished alike by her beauty, her widespread benevolence, and her attachment to her friends and family. On December 21, aged 54, **George Frederick Ansell**, inventor of the fire-damp indicator. In early life he studied surgery, which he forsook for chemistry, becoming in time lecture-assistant to Dr. Hofmann at the Royal School of Mines. He next became Professor of Chemistry at the Royal Panopticon, where he succeeded in volatilizing gold, &c. In 1855 he received an appointment in the Mint, of which he wrote a valuable history, and to which he rendered valuable services by his treatment of brittle gold. On December 21, aged 78, at Gresford Vicarage, Denbighshire, **Venerable Robert Wickham**, late Archdeacon of St. Asaph. He was educated at Christ Church, Oxford, where, in 1823, he took a second-class in mathematics. For many years he conducted a private school at Twyford, near Winchester. On December 26, at South Norwood, aged 76, **John Cousen**, a landscape engraver, whose works after Turner, Stanfield, and others have obtained for him a high position among engravers. He was born at Bradford, Yorkshire, but came to London at an early age. On December 28, at Stuttgart, **Christopher Ulrich Louis**, infant son of Prince Louis of Wurtemberg and the Princess Marie of

Waldeck; heir presumptive to the throne of Wurtemberg. On December 29, at the age of 53, **Clement Upton Cottrell-Dormer**, of Rousham Hall, Oxfordshire, and Berkeley Square, London. He was born in 1827, and married, in 1858, Florence Anne, second daughter of the late Mr. Thomas Upton, of Ingmire Hall, county York, and sister of Sir John Henry Smyth, of Ashton Court, Somerset. He assumed the name of Upton by Royal license in 1876. His mother, Mrs. Cottrell-Dormer, eldest daughter of the late Mr. Walter Strickland, who married the late Mr. Charles Dormer in 1826, survives him, and is Lady of the Manor and patron of Flamborough, Yorkshire (Danes' Dyke). In 1641 Charles Cottrell was appointed Master of the Ceremonies, and this honour was inherited by the representatives of the family down to the time of the abolition of the office. Among the treasures in the mansion at Rousham is a medal which was worn by all the holders of the office. It was put round Sir Charles Cottrell's neck by Charles II., at the Restoration. On December 30, at Melbourne, aged 67, **Sir Redmond Barry**, one of the judges of the Supreme Court of Victoria, son of Major-General Henry Green Barry, of Barryclough, county Cork. Educated at Trinity College, Dublin; called to the Bar in 1838; soon after went to Victoria, where, in 1850, he was made Solicitor-General, and in the year following advanced to the Bench. For upwards of five years he had been Chancellor of the University of Melbourne. On December 30, at Neu-Strelitz, **Marie Wilhelmine Friederike**, daughter of the Landgrave Friedrich of Hesse Cassel. Born 1796; married in 1812 to the Grand Duke George Friedrich Karl Joseph of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, who died in 1860. On December 30, at Cannes, aged 65, **General Edward Tuite Dalton**, C.S.I., an Indian officer of much service on the Assam and Tibet frontiers. On December 31, at Walham Green, **J. D. Stoye**, a comic actor of considerable promise. Born at Bath in 1830, he ran away from home and appeared on the stage at Manchester. His first appearance in London was in 1865, in Mr. H. T. Craven's "Milky White"—his favourite part was that of the gravedigger in "Hamlet." On December 31, in London, aged 71, **Dr. John Stenhouse**, F.R.S., born at Glasgow, the pupil of Graham and Liebig. He became distinguished in the study of organic chemistry, and was one of the founders of the Chemical Society. In 1865 he succeeded Dr. Hofmann as assayer to the Royal Mint, a post abolished in 1870. He was the inventor of the charcoal respirator, the charcoal sewer-ventilator, and of a process of waterproofing by means of paraffin.

CIVIL LIST PENSIONS, 1879-80.

Mrs. Sarah Vargas, in consideration of the long and meritorious services of her late husband, Mr. Peter Vargas, superintendent of the Parliamentary messengers under the Secretary of the Treasury, 25*l.*; Miss Sarah Sophia Vargas, Miss Clara Vargas, Miss Louisa Emily Vargas, Miss Rosa Vargas, and Miss Henrietta Vargas, 25*l.* each, in consideration of the long and meritorious services of their father, the late Mr. Peter Vargas, superintendent of the Parliamentary messengers under the Secretary of the Treasury. Miss Mary Ann Sydney Turner, 75*l.*, in consideration of the services rendered by her father, the late Very Rev. Sydney Turner, as inspector of reformatories and industrial schools. Miss Millicent Flora Louisa MacLeay, 100*l.*, in consideration of the services rendered to art by her father, the late Mr. Kenneth MacLeay, a life visitor of the Royal Scottish Academy. Mr. Richard Henry Hengist Horne, 50*l.*, in addition to the pension of 50*l.* granted in 1874, in recognition of his contributions to literature. Mrs. Marian Hepworth Dixon, 100*l.*, in consideration of the literary services of her late husband, Mr. William Hepworth Dixon. Mr. Walter Hood Fitch, 100*l.*, in recognition of his long and valuable services towards the advancement of botanical science. Mr. William Thomas Best, 100*l.*, in consideration of his services to music. Mr. Samuel Carter Hall, 150*l.*, in recognition of his literary services. Dr. Henry Dunbar, 80*l.*, in consideration of his services to classical literature. Miss Georgina Jackson, 40*l.*, in consideration of her philological researches. Lady Goss, 70*l.*, in consideration of the services rendered to music by her husband, the late Sir John Goss. Mrs. Anne Jane Sampson and Miss Julia Goss, 60*l.* (jointly), in similar consideration of the services of their father, the late Sir John Goss. Mrs. Broun, 75*l.*, in consideration of the services rendered to science by her husband, the late Mr. J. A. Broun, F.R.S. Lady Fothergill-Cooke, 50*l.*, in consideration of the services of her husband, the late Sir W. Fothergill-Cooke, in connection with the introduction of the telegraphic system into this country. Total, 1,200*l.*

PROMOTIONS AND APPOINTMENTS.

Jan. 1. Lieutenant Arthur John Bigge, R.A., to be one of the Grooms in Waiting in Ordinary to Her Majesty, in the room of Major Charles E. Phipps, resigned.

— 3. Sir Brydges Powell Henniker, Bart., Registrar-General of Births, Deaths, and Marriages in England, in the room of George Graham, Esq., resigned.

— 5. Henry Connor, Esq., Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the Colony of Natal, to be a Knight of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

John Kirk, Esq., C.M.G., now H.M.'s Consul-General at Zanzibar, to be H.M.'s Agent and Consul-General at Zanzibar.

— 7. Arthur Shirley Hamilton, Esq., to be a Member of the Legislative Council of the Island of Labuan.

Captain William Arthur de Vesci Brownlow, R.N., Surveyor of Shipping in the Transport Department of the Admiralty, to be an Ordinary Member of the Civil Division of the Third Class, or Companions of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath.

— 8. James Marshall, Esq., late a Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court of the Gold Coast Colony, to be the Chief Justice of that Colony.

George Henry Robert Charles William, Marquess of Londonderry, K.P., to be Lieutenant and Custos Rotulorum of the county palatine of Durham, in the room of George Frederick D'Arcy, Earl of Durham, deceased.

— 9. Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Col. Sir Henry Evelyn Wood, K.C.B., V.C., half-pay, late 90th Foot, to have the temporary rank of Brigadier-General while in command of the Chatham District.

— 10. Vice-Admiral Arthur Cumming, C.B., to be Admiral in H.M.'s Fleet.

— 12. To be Ordinary Members of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George:—Sir Julian Pauncefote, Assistant Under-Secretary of State for Foreign

Affairs; Major-General Edward Bruce Hamley, R.A., C.B., late H.M.'s Commissioner for the delimitation of Bulgaria; Charles Rivers Wilson, Esq., C.B., Secretary and Controller-General of the National Debt Office.

To be Ordinary Members of the Third Class, or Companions of the said Most Distinguished Order:—Robert Hart, Esq., Inspector-General of Chinese Imperial Maritime Customs; George Jackson Eldridge, Esq., H.M.'s Consul-General, Beyrout; Lieutenant Herbert Charles Chermide, R.E., late Military Attaché at Constantinople and Assistant-Commissioner for the delimitation of Bulgaria, and now H.M.'s Vice-Consul at Aidin; Lieutenant Charles Le Strange, R.N., to be Extra Equerry in Waiting to H.R.H. the Duke of Edinburgh.

— 13. Hon. Emily Sarah Cathcart to be Extra Woman of the Bedchamber to Her Majesty; and the Hon. Ethel Henrietta Mary Cadogan, Extra Maid of Honour, to be Maid of Honour in Ordinary to Her Majesty, in the room of the Hon. Emily Sarah Cathcart, resigned.

— 19. Arthur de Capel Crowe, Esq., now H.M.'s Consul at Copenhagen, to be H.M.'s Consul-General in the Island of Cuba.

— 20. To be an Ordinary Member of the Third Class, or Companions of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George:—Lieut.-Col. Zachary Stanley Bayly, of the Cape Mounted Riflemen.

— 28. Henry Thomas Wrenfordsley, Esq. (late Procureur and Advocate-General of Mauritius), to be Chief Justice of the Colony of Western Australia.

— 29. Bruce Lockhart Burnside, Esq. (late Attorney-General of the Bahama Islands), to be Queen's Advocate for the Island of Ceylon.

— 30. Edward K. Moylan, Esq. (late Attorney-General of the Island of Tobago), to be Attorney-General for the Island of Grenada.

Feb. 2. William Henry White, Esq., Accountant-General of the Army; Arthur Lawrence Halliburton, Esq., Director of Supplies and Transport; Commissary-General Fitz-James Edward Watt, Commissariat Department; Assistant-Commissary-General William Frederick Wright, Ordnance Store Department; and Major William Clare Ball, Staff Paymaster, Army Pay Department, to be Ordinary Members of the Civil Division of the Third Class, or Companions of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath.

— 3. Sir William Cleaver Francis Robinson, K.C.M.G. (late Governor of the Straits Settlements), to be Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of Western Australia and its Dependencies.

Major Oliver Beauchamp Coventry St. John, C.S.I., Royal (late Bengal) Engineers, to the rank of Lieut.-Col. in recognition of his special services in Afghanistan. Dated February 4, 1880.

— 4. His Excellency Prince Lobanoff-Rostoffsky, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary from His Majesty the Emperor of Russia, delivered his credentials; and Mori Arinori delivered the letter of recall of Wooyeno Kagenori and his own credentials as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from His Majesty the Emperor of Japan.

— 5. Edward Hyde Hewett, Esq., to be H.M.'s Consul for the island of Fernando Po, and for the territories on the western coast of Africa comprised within the Rights of Benin and Biafra, and lying between Cape St. Paul's to the west, and Cape St. John to the east, or in the rivers or water communications lying between the two capes in question so far inland as British trading settlements or trading operations extend.

— 9. Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. Borough of Liverpool.—Edward Whitley, of Clovelly, Anfield, Liverpool, Esq., in the place of John Torr, Esq., deceased.

Hon. Mrs. Charles Eliot to be Lady-in-Waiting to her Royal Highness the Princess Frederica of Hanover.

— 10. 71st Regiment of Foot.—Gen. John Hamilton Elphinstone Dalrymple, C.B., from the 108th Foot, to be Colonel, vice General the Hon. Sir G. Cadogan, K.C.B., deceased.

93rd Regiment of Foot.—General Mark Kerr Atherley, from the 109th Foot, to be Colonel, vice General W. Munro, C.B., deceased.

108th Regiment of Foot. Lieut.-Gen. Sir Edward Harris Greathed,

K.C.B., to be Colonel, vice General J. H. E. Dalrymple, C.B., transferred to the 71st Foot.

109th Regiment of Foot.—Lieut.-Gen. Sir Richard Denis Kelly, K.C.B., to be Colonel, vice General M. K. Atherley, transferred to the 93rd Foot.

— 12. Hector William Macleod, Esq., M.A., to be a Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court of the Gold Colony.

— 13. Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. Borough of Barnstaple.—The Hon. Newton Wallop (commonly called Viscount Lymington), in the place of Samuel Danks Waddy, Esq., who accepted the Chiltern Hundreds.

The following promotions conferred upon the undermentioned officers, in recognition of their services during the Zulu campaign of 1879:—

To be Colonels.—Lieut.-Cols. Charles Mansfield Clarke, C.B., 57th Foot; William Dunn Bond, 58th Foot; Robert Montresor Rogers, V.C., 90th Foot.

To be Lieut.-Col.—Major John Moore Gurnell Tongue, 24th Foot.

To be Majors.—Captains Charles Lacon Harvey, 71st Foot; Herbert Stewart, 3rd Dragoon Guards; William Stewart Hamilton, 90th Foot; Hugh Richard, Viscount Downe, 2nd Life Guards; Howard Molyneux, Edward Brunker, 26th Foot; Charles Wyndham Murray, 61st Foot.

— 14. Mr. William Conyngham Greene, of the Foreign Office, to be an Acting Third Secretary in H.M.'s Diplomatic Service while employed abroad.

— 16. Major Eugène Mervyn Roe, late of the 23rd Foot, to be one of H.M.'s Inspectors of Factories and Workshops.

Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. Borough of Southwark.—Edward George Clarke, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, in the place of John Locke, Esq., deceased.

— 17. Major and Brevet Lieut.-Col. Baker Creed Russell, C.B., 13th Hussars, to be Aide-de-Camp to Her Majesty, with the rank of Colonel in the Army.

William Hillier, Earl of Onslow, to be one of H.M.'s Lords in Waiting in Ordinary, in the room of Robert, Earl of Roden, deceased.

— 18. The Maharaja Kirtee Sing of Muneepore, to be an Extra Knight Commander of the Most Exalted Order of the Star of India.

— 20. William Arthur White, Esq., C.B., to be H.M.'s Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary in Roumania.

— 23. Andrew Mure, Esq., M.A., to

be Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court of the Colony of Mauritius; Edward Morehead Wood, Esq., to be Procureur and Advocate General, and William Henry Lionel Cox, Esq., to be Substitute Procureur and Advocate General for the same Colony.

— 26 John Lindsay Robertson, Esq., M.A., University of Edinburgh, to be one of H.M.'s Inspectors of Schools in Scotland.

— 27. Mr. Nicholas Gustave Bestel, barrister-at law, formerly senior Puisne Judge, and lately Acting Chief Judge, of the Supreme Court of the Island of Mauritius, to be a Knight of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

Venerable Arthur Perceval Pureycust, M.A., to be Dean of the Metropolitan Church of York, vacant by the death of the Hon. and very Rev. Augustus Duncombe, D.D.

Rev. William Richard Villiers, B.C.L., to the Perpetual Curacy of the Church of Newborough, in the county of Northampton, and diocese of Peterborough, void by the resignation of the Rev. James Dodd.

Sir John Hay Drummond Hay, K.C.B., now H.M.'s Minister Plenipotentiary to the Emperor of Morocco, to be H.M.'s Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the Emperor of Morocco.

— 28. Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. City of Kilkenny.—John Francis Smithwick, Esq., of Drakeland House, in the County of Kilkenny, in the place of Benjamin Whitworth, Esq., who accepted the office of Steward of H.M.'s Manor of Northstead.

March 1. Henry James Burford Hancock, Esq., late Attorney-General of the Leeward Islands, to be Chief Justice of the Leeward Islands.

— 2. Henry Hicks Hocking, Esq., late Attorney-General of the Colony of Western Australia, to be Attorney-General for the Island of Jamaica.

13th Regiment of Foot.—General Lord Mark Kerr, C.B., from the 54th Foot, to be Colonel, vice General P. S. Stanhope, deceased.

54th Regiment of Foot.—Lieut.-Gen. John Ramsay Stuart, C.B., to be Colonel, vice General Lord M. Kerr, C.B., transferred to the 13th Foot.

— 4. Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. Borough of Drogheda.—Benjamin Whitworth, of 11 Holland Park, London, merchant and manufacturer, in the place of William Hagarty O'Leary, Esq., deceased.

Commander Lynedoch Needham

Moncrieff, R.N., to be H.M.'s Consul for French Guiana, to reside at Cayenne.

— 6. To be Ordinary Members of the Military Division of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the said Most Honourable Order, viz.:—Colonel Charles Patton Keyes, C.B., Madras Staff Corps; Colonel Campbell Claye Grant Ross, C.B., Bengal Staff Corps.

To be an Ordinary Member of the Military Division of the Third Class, or Companions of the said Most Honourable Order, viz.:—Colonel Henry James Buchanan, half-pay, late 9th Regiment.

— 6. John Broadhurst and Isaac Benjamin Pratt, Esqs., to be Members of the Legislative Council of H.M.'s Settlement of Sierra Leone.

— 7. Hon. Michael Henry Herbert, to be a Third Secretary in H.M.'s Diplomatic Service.

— 8. William Kirkwood, Esq., M.D., Robert Butler, Esq., and William Malcolm Grey Maclure, Esq., M.D., to be Members of the Legislative Council of the Bahama Islands.

— 9. William Warren Streeten, Esq., late Queen's Advocate of the West Africa Settlements, to be the Chief Justice of those Settlements.

— Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. County of Norfolk. Western Division.—William Amherst Tyssen Amherst, Esq., in the place of Sir William Bagge, Bart., deceased.

— 10. John Thomas Banks, Esq., M.D., to be one of the Physicians in Ordinary to Her Majesty in Ireland, in the room of Sir Dominic Corrigan, Bart., M.D., deceased.

— The Right Hon. Sir James Fergusson, Bart., K.C.M.G., to be Governor of the Presidency of Bombay.

— Robert Pipon Maret, Esq., granted by Letters Patent the office of Bailiff of the island of Jersey, in the room of John Hammond, Esq., deceased.

— 11. Mr. James Russell Lowell, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from the United States of America, delivered his credentials.

— Major-General Sir Edward Bruce Hamley, K.C.M.G., C.B., to be H.M.'s Commissioner to take part in the demarcation of the frontier of Turkey in Asia.

— 12. The Right Hon. Reginald Charles Edward, Baron Colchester, to be a paid Charity Commissioner for England and Wales, under the provisions of the Endowed Schools Acts of 1874 and 1879, in the room of the Right Hon. Charles Henry Rolle, Baron Clinton, resigned.

To be Commissaries-General:—Fitz-

James Edward Watt, C.B., Sir Edward Strickland, K.C.B.

Commissary-General of Ordnance—William L. M. Young, C.B.

Lieut.-Col. Wykeham Leigh Pemberton, C.B., 60th Foot, to be Colonel.

— 16. Hon. Mary Thesiger, to be the Lady in Waiting to H.R.H. the Duchess of Teck.

The rank of Lieut.-Col. conferred upon the undermentioned officers in recognition of their services during the Jowaki campaign of 1877-78:—

Major (since promoted Substantive Lieut.-Col.) Harry Chippindale Plunkett Rice, Bengal Staff Corps.

Major Charles Edward Stewart, Bengal Staff Corps.

Charles Alfred Payton, Esq., to be H.M.'s Consul at Mogador.

— 18. Richard Ponsonby Maxwell, Esq., of the Foreign Office, to be an Acting Third Secretary in H.M.'s Diplomatic Service while employed abroad.

Her Majesty in Council was this day pleased to declare her consent to a contract of matrimony between her Royal Highness the Princess Frederica Sophia Maria Henrietta Amelia Theresa of Hanover, Princess of Great Britain and Ireland, and Luitbert Alexander George Lionel Alphonse Freiherr von Pawel Rammingen, which consent Her Majesty has also caused to be signified under the Great Seal.

The Right Hon. Gilbert Henry, Lord Aveland, sworn of H.M.'s Most Honourable Privy Council.

Henry Cecil Raikes, Esq., M.P., sworn of H.M.'s Most Honourable Privy Council.

Henry Lushington Phillips, Esq., C.M.G., Judicial Commissioner of the High Court of Justice in Cyprus, to be a Knight of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

Frederick Aloysius Weld, Esq., C.M.G. (now Governor of the Colony of Tasmania), to be Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Straits Settlements and their dependencies.

John Braddick Monckton, Esq., Town Clerk of the City of London; and William Thomas Charley, Esq., D.C.L., M.P., Common Serjeant of the City of London, to be Knights.

— 19. Brevet Major Ronald B. Lane, of the Rifle Brigade, to be Extra Equerry to his H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught.

— 20. The Right Hon. Stephen Cave, Paymaster-General of the Forces, to be an Ordinary Member of the Civil Division of the First Class, or Knights Grand Cross of the Most Honourable

Order of the Bath; and Theodore Martin, Esq., C.B., to be an Ordinary Member of the Civil Division of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the said Most Honourable Order.

— 22. The Rev. John Charles Ryle, M.A., to the deanery of the Cathedral Church of Salisbury, void by the death of the Very Rev. Henry Parr Hamilton, late dean thereof.

Lieutenant-General Edmund Augustus Whitmore, C.B., to be Military Secretary to H.R.H., the Field-Marshal Commanding-in-Chief, from April 1, 1880, in succession to General Sir Alfred Hastings Horsford, G.C.B., Colonel of the 14th Foot.

— 23. 8th Hussars.—Lieut.-Gen. William Charles Forrest, C.B., to be Colonel, vice Lieut.-Gen. R. de Salis, C.B., deceased.

James Gibbs, Esq., C.S.I., late a Member of the Bombay Civil Service, to be an Ordinary Member of the Council of the Governor-General of India, in succession to Sir Alexander John Arbuthnot, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.

Major John Picton Warlow, to be one of H.M.'s Vice-Consuls in Anatolia, and Lieutenant Ferdinando Wallis Bennet also to be one of H.M.'s Vice-Consuls in Anatolia.

— 24. Henry George Allen, Esq., of Lincoln's Inn; William Shaw, Esq., of Gray's Inn; Frederick Bailey, Esq., of the Middle Temple; Edgar Rodwell, Esq., of the Middle Temple; James Jones Aston, Esq., of the Middle Temple; Frederick Weymouth Gibbs, Esq., of Lincoln's Inn; Edmund Swetenham, Esq., of Lincoln's Inn; George Browne, Esq., of the Inner Temple; William Cole Beasley, Esq., of the Inner Temple; Frederick Charles James Millar, Esq., of the Inner Temple; Lumley Smith, Esq., of the Inner Temple; William Potter, Esq., of the Inner Temple; Joseph Underhill, Esq., of the Middle Temple; John Edmund Wentworth Addison, Esq., of the Inner Temple; Arthur Richard Jelf, of the Inner Temple; John Thomas Crossley, of the Inner Temple; Edward George Clarke, of Lincoln's Inn; Sir William Thomas Charley, Knt., of the Inner Temple; William Comer Petheram, Esq., of the Middle Temple, to be H.M.'s Counsel learned in the Law.

The Honourable David Robert Plunkett, M.P., sworn of H.M.'s Most Honourable Privy Council.

George Cubitt, Esq., M.P., sworn of H.M.'s Most Honourable Privy Council.

Hugh Fife Ashley Brodie, of Brodie, Esq., to be Lieutenant of the Shire of

Nairn, in the room of James Campbell John Brodie, Esq., deceased.

— 27. James Zohrab, Esq., H.M.'s Consul at Jeddah, to be also H.M.'s Consul for Assab Bay and the surrounding district, to reside at Jeddah.

Charles Oppenheimer, Esq., to be H.M.'s Consul for the Free City of Frankfort, the Province of Hesse Nassau, and the Grand Duchy of Hesse, to reside at Frankfort.

— 30. Colonel Edward Charles Heberan Gordon, R.E., to be a Member of the Council of the Bermudas or Somers Islands.

— 31. Thomas Uppington, Simeon Jacob, Alfred Whalley Cole, to be H.M.'s Counsel for the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope.

William Henry Wylde, Esq., lately Superintendent of the Slave Trade and Consular Department, Foreign Office, to be C.M.G.

April 6. Norman Magnus MacLeod, Esq., late Captain 74th Highlanders, to be Companion of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George.

— 8. George Annesley, Esq., now H.M.'s Consul at Hamburg, to be H.M.'s Consul-General for the Free City and Territory of Hamburg, the Province of Schleswig-Holstein with Lauenburg, the Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, the Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, the Free City and Territory of Lübeck, and for those ports and places in the Province of Hanover which are on the left bank of the River Elbe up to and including the town of Harburg, to reside at Hamburg; and William Ward, Esq., now H.M.'s Consul at Bremen, to be H.M.'s Consul for the Free City and Territory of Bremen, the Grand Duchy of Oldenburg, the district of Wilhelmshaven, the Province of Hanover, excepting the ports and places on the left bank of the river Elbe up to and including the town of Harburg, the Duchy of Brunswick, and the Principalities of Lippe-Schaumburg, Lippe-Detmold, and Waldeck Pyrmont, to reside at Bremen.

Cornelius Alfred Moloney, Esq., late Assistant Colonial Secretary, to be Colonial Secretary of the Gold Coast Colony.

— 10. William Farr, Esq., M.D., late Superintendent of Statistics, General Register Office, to be an Ordinary Member of the Civil Division of the Third Class, or Companions of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath.

George Clement Bertram, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, the office and place of Procurator-General in the island of

Jersey, in the room of Robert Pipon Marett, Esq., promoted to the office of Bailiff of the island of Jersey.

— 12. William Archer Amherst, Esq. (commonly called Viscount Holmesdale), summoned by Writ to the House of Peers, by the name, style, and title of Baron Amherst, of Montreal, in the county of Kent.

Captain Arthur Collins, of the 57th Regiment, to be Equerry to H.R.H. the Princess Louise, Marchioness of Lorne.

To be Ordinary Members of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George:—Thomas George Knox, Esq., late H.M.'s Agent and Consul-General in Siam; Major-General Robert Biddulph, C.B., R.A., H.M.'s High Commissioner and Commander-in-Chief in and over the island of Cyprus.

To be an Ordinary Member of the Third Class, or Companion of the said Most Distinguished Order:—Major Francis Coningsby Hannam Clarke, R.A., late H.M.'s Commissioner for the delimitation of the Asiatic frontier of Turkey.

— 14. James Edward Mason, Esq., to be a Member of the Legislative Council of the Colony of Fiji.

— 15. John Tankerville Goldney, Esq., to be Attorney-General for the Leeward Islands.

Right Hon. George William Viscount Barrington, in that part of the said United Kingdom called Ireland, by letters patent, to be Baron Shute, of Beckett, in the County of Berks, with remainder, in default of such issue male, to his brother, Percy Barrington, Esq. (commonly called the Hon. Percy Barrington), and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten.

— 16. 92nd Foot.—General Mark Kerr Atherley, from the 93rd Foot, to be Colonel, vice General G. Staunton, C.B., deceased.

93rd Foot.—Lieut.-Gen. the Hon. Robert Rollo, C.B., to be Colonel, vice General M. K. Atherley, transferred to the 92nd Foot.

— 17. Lieut.-Col. Henry Brackenbury, Royal Artillery, and Lieut.-Col. John Murray, 94th Foot, to be Ordinary Members of the Military Division of the Third Class, or Companions of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath. The Hon. Charles William Fremantle, Deputy Master and Comptroller of the Mint; Charles Walter Stronge, Esq., Principal Clerk in the Treasury; Thomas Henry Sanderson, Esq., Clerk in the Foreign

Office; and John Ball Greene, Esq., Commissioner of Valuation and Boundary Surveyor in Ireland, to be Ordinary Members of the Civil Division of the Third Class or Companions of the said Order.

William Henry Weldon, Esq., Rouge Dragon Pursuivant of Arms, granted by letters patent the office of Windsor Herald, vacant by the decease of George Harrison Rogers-Harrison, Esq.

— 19. Charles Ryle, M.A., Dean designate of Salisbury, to the newly-founded Bishopric of Liverpool.

Thomas Salt, Esq., the Hon. Wilbraham Egerton, and Frederick Archibald Vaughan, Esq. (commonly called Viscount Emlyn), to be Ecclesiastical Commissioners for England.

The Hon. Charles Gounter Legge, to be one of the Inspectors of Constabulary, in the room of Edward Willis, Esq., resigned.

Right Hon. Francis Robert, Earl of Rosslyn, to be H.M.'s High Commissioner to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland.

Augusta Mary Elizabeth Cavendish-Bentinck, widow of Lieut.-Gen. Arthur Cavendish Bentinck, to be a Baroness, by the name, style, and title of Baroness Bolsover, of Bolsover Castle, in the county of Derby, and at her decease the dignity of a Baron of the United Kingdom to the heirs male of the body of her late husband, the said Arthur Cavendish-Bentinck, by the name, style, and title of Baron Bolsover of Bolsover Castle, in the said county of Derby.

— 20. Edmund Stephen Harrison, Esq., C.B., Deputy Clerk of the Council; Thomas James Nelson, Esq., Solicitor of the City of London; Captain Thomas Cuppage Bruce, R.N., Superintendent of Packets, Dover; and Algernon Borthwick, Esq. to be Knights.

To be Ordinary Members of the Civil Division of the First Class, or Knights Grand Cross of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath, viz.:—Right Hon. Richard Assheton Cross; Right Hon. Sir Stafford Henry Northcote, Bart., C.B.; Right Hon. Lord John James Robert Manners.

To be Ordinary Members of the Civil Division of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the said Most Honourable Order, viz.:—The Hon. Adolphus Frederic Octavius Liddell, Permanent Under-Secretary of State for the Home Department; John Tilley, Esq., C.B., late Secretary of the General Post Office.

To be Ordinary Members of the Civil Division of the Third Class, or Com-

panions of the said Most Honourable Order, viz.:—Sir Julian Pauncefote, Assistant Under-Secretary of State, Foreign Office; Charles Mathew Clode, Esq., late Legal Secretary, War Office; Gerald Francis Gould, Esq., H.M.'s Consul-General at Belgrade; Major Henry Trotter, R.E., H.M.'s Consul at Erzeroum; the Hon. Charles Fowler Bourke, Chairman of Prisons' Board, Ireland; Dr. William Homan Newell, Senior Secretary to the Commissioners of National Education in Dublin; Henry Robinson, Esq., Vice-President of the Local Government Board, Ireland; Stevenson Arthur Blackwood, Esq., Secretary of the General Post Office; Horace George Walpole, Esq., Clerk to the Council of India; Captain William Codrington, R.N., Private Secretary to the First Lord of the Admiralty; Henry Stafford Northcote, Esq., Private Secretary to the Chancellor of the Exchequer; James Wright, Esq., Engineer-in-Chief to the Admiralty; Ralph Henry Knox, Esq., Deputy Accountant-General of the War Office.

The Right Hon. Gathorne, Viscount Cranbrook, H.M.'s Principal Secretary of State for India, to be an extra Knight Grand Commander of the Most Exalted Order of the Star of India.

Honourable Robert Bourke, M.P.; Sir William Hart Dyke, Bart., M.P.; Lieut.-Gen. Sir Henry Frederick Ponsonby, K.C.B.; and Alexander James Beresford Beresford-Hope, Esq., M.P., were sworn of H.M.'s Most Honourable Privy Council.

— 21. His Excellency Vice-Admiral Pothuau, Ambassador from the French Republic, delivered his letter of recall.

Colonel Sir George Pomeroy Colley, K.C.S.I., C.B., C.M.G., to be Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the colony of Natal and High Commissioner for South-Eastern Africa.

Colin James Mackenzie, of Portmore, Esq., to be Lieutenant of the Shire of Peebles, in the room of Francis, Earl of Wemyss and March, resigned.

Trevor John Chichele Plowden, Esq., to be H.M.'s Consul-General at Bagdad.

— 23. Andrew Beatson Bell, Esq., to be one of the Commissioners under the provisions of The Prisons (Scotland) Act, 1877.

Royal Engineers.—Lieut.-Gen. William Charles Hadden to be Colonel-Commandant, vice General W. E. D. Broughton, deceased; Lieutenant Monier Williams Skinner is placed upon the temporary Reserve List.

2nd Foot.—Major and Brevet Colonel

Sir George Pomeroy Colley, K.C.S.I., C.B., C.M.G., is placed on the half-pay list for service on the Staff.

Major-General Sir Frederick Sleigh Roberts, V.C., K.C.C., Royal (late Bengal) Artillery, to have the local rank of Lieutenant-General in Afghanistan.

Major and Brevet Colonel Sir George Pomeroy Colley, K.C.S.I., C.B., C.M.G., half pay, late 2nd Foot, to have the local rank of Major-General while in command of the troops in Natal and the Transvaal.

Edward Macnaghten, Esq., of Lincoln's Inn, to be one of H.M.'s Counsel learned in the Law.

To be Ordinary Members of the Military Division of the First Class, or Knights Grand Cross of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath, viz.:—Admiral of the Fleet Sir George Rose Sartorius, K.C.B.; Admiral of the Fleet Sir Thomas Matthew Charles Symonds, K.C.B.; Admiral the Hon. Sir James Robert Drummond, K.C.B.

To be Ordinary Members of the Military Division of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the said Most Honourable Order, viz.:—Admiral George Greille Wellesley, C.B.; Major-General Frederick Alexander Campbell, C.B.

Colonel Charles Pasley, R.E., Director of Engineering and Architectural Works under the Admiralty; James Gambier Noel, Esq., late of the Admiralty; Major Vivian Dering Majendie, R.A., Inspector of Explosives under the Home Office; and Colonel Alexander Moncrieff, to be Ordinary Members of the Civil Division of the Third Class, or Companions of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath.

— 24. The ceremony of the marriage of H.R.H. the Princess Frederica of Hanover (Princess of Great Britain and Ireland) with the Frieheer von Pawel Rammingen, was celebrated by the Bishop of Oxford, in the private chapel at Windsor Castle, at three o'clock this day, in the presence of the Queen.

— 26. Robert Lytton, Baron Lytton, G.C.B., Viceroy and Governor-General of India, created by letters patent Earl and Viscount, by the names, styles, and titles of Viscount Knebworth, of Knebworth, in the county of Hertford, and Earl of Lytton, in the county of Derby.

The Right Honourable William Watson, H.M.'s Advocate for Scotland, to be a Lord of Appeal in Ordinary, in the room of Edward Strathearn, Baron Gordon, of Drumearn, deceased, and granted the dignity of a Baronet for

life, by the style and title of Baron Watson, of Thankerton, in the county of Lanark.

The undermentioned persons, and the heirs male of their respective bodies lawfully begotten, to be Barons, namely:—

Sir Lawrence Palk, of Haldon House, in the county of Devon, Bart., by the name, style, and title of Baron Haldon, of Haldon, in the said county of Devon.

Sir Ivor Bertie Guest, of Dowlais, in the county of Glamorgan, Bart., by the name, style, and title of Baron Wimborne, of Canford Magna, in the said county of Dorset.

Sir Arthur Edward Guinness, of Ashford, in the county of Galway, Bart., by the name, style, and title of Baron Ardilaun, of Ashford, in the said county of Galway.

Alexander Dundas Ross Cochrane-Wishart-Baillie, of Lamington, in the county of Lanark, Esq., by the name, style, and title of Baron Lamington, of Lamington, in the said county of Lanark.

— 27. Commander Charles Burney, R.N., Superintendent of Greenwich Hospital School, to be an Ordinary Member of the Civil Division of the Third Class, or Companions of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath.

General Sir Daniel Lysons, K.C.B., placed on the Staff of the Army serving in Great Britain, as a Lieut.-Gen., with a view to his commanding the division at Aldershot, in succession to General Sir T. M. Steele, K.C.B., whose period of service on the Staff has expired.

Lieut.-Gen. Sir Garnet Joseph Wolseley, G.C.M.G., K.C.B., Quartermaster-General at Head Quarters, in succession to General Sir D. Lysons, K.C.B., appointed to command the division at Aldershot.

Major-General John Henry Ford El-kington to be Deputy Adjutant-General at Head-Quarters (for the Auxiliary Forces), vice Lieut.-Gen. J. W. Armstrong, C.B., deceased.

Alfred Scott Gatty, gentleman, granted by letters patent the office of Rouge Dragon Pursuivant of Arms, vacant by the promotion of William Henry Weldon, Esq., to the office of Windsor Herald.

— 28. Rev. Henry Jardine Bidder, B.D., to the Vicarage of Holbeton, otherwise Holberton, in the deanery of Plympton and diocese of Exeter, void by the death of the Rev. Courtenay James Cooper Bulteel.

— 29. The dignity of an Earl of the United Kingdom granted to the Right

Honourable Edward, Baron Skelmersdale, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, by the name, style, and title of Earl of Lathom, in the county palatine of Lancaster.

The dignities of a Viscount and an Earl of the said United Kingdom granted to George Watson, Baron Sondes, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, by the names, styles, and titles of Viscount Throwley, in the county of Kent, and Earl Sondes, of Lees Court, in the said country of Kent.

The dignity of a Baron of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland granted unto the undermentioned persons, and the heirs male of their respective bodies lawfully begotten, namely:—

Charles Frederick Abney-Hastings, of Donington Park, in the county of Leicester, Esq., by the name, style, and title of Baron Donington, of Donington Park, in the said county of Leicester.

Arthur Edwin Hill Trevor, Esq. (commonly called Lord Arthur Edwin Hill Trevor), by the name, style, and title of Baron Trevor, of Brynkinalt, in the county of Denbigh.

Montagu William Lowry-Corry, Esq., C.B., by the name, style, and title of Baron Rowton, of Rowton Castle, in the county of Salop.

— 30. The dignity of a Baronet of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland granted unto the undermentioned gentlemen and their respective heirs male of their bodies lawfully begotten, namely:—

Right Honourable John Robert Mowbray, of Warenes Wood, in the parish of Stratfield Mortimer, in the county of Berks, and of Bishopwearmouth, in the county palatine of Durham.

Archibald Campbell Campbell, of Blythswood, in the county of Renfrew, Esq.

Thomas Meyrick, of Bush House, in the parish of St. Mary, Pembroke, in the county of Pembroke, and of Apley Castle, in the parish of Wellington, in the county of Salop, Esq.

John Farnaby Lennard, of Wickham Court, in the parish of West Wickham, in the county of Kent, Esq.

Henry Allsopp, of Hindlip Hall, in the parish of Hindlip, in the county of Worcester, Esq.

Henry William Ripley, of Rawdon, in the West Riding of the county of York, and of Bedstone, in the county of Salop, Esq.

James Bourne, of Hackinsall Hall,

in the parish of Stalmine, and of Heathfield, in the parish of Childwell, both in the county palatine of Lancaster, Esq.

Gabriel Goldney, of Beechfield, in the parish of Corsham, of Bradenstoke Abbey, in the parish of Lyneham, both in the county of Wilts, Esq.

Sir Edward William Watkin, of Northenden, in the county palatine of Chester, Knt.

Edward Bates, of Bellefield, in the county palatine of Lancaster, Gyrn Castle, in the parish of Holywell, in the county of Flint, and of Manydown, in the parish of Basingstoke, in the county of Southampton, Esq.

William Henry Venables Vernon, Esq., to be Advocate-General of the Island of Jersey, in the room of George Clement Bertram, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, promoted to the office of Procurator-General of the said island of Jersey.

May 3. Right Hon. Francis Thomas de Grey, Earl Cowper, K.G., declared Lieutenant-General and General Governor of that part of the United Kingdom called Ireland.

Right Hon. Gavin, Earl of Breadalbane; Right Hon. Alexander William George, Earl of Fife; Charles William Brudenell Bruce, Esq., commonly called Lord Charles William Brudenell Bruce; Right Hon. William, Lord Kensington; Joseph Chamberlain, Esq.; Anthony John Mundella, Esq.; Henry Fawcett, Esq.; George Osborne Morgan, Esq.; and Mountstuart Elphinstone Grant Duff, Esq., sworn of H.M.'s Most Honourable Privy Council.

Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, to be President of the Committee of Council for Trade.

Right Hon. John George Dodson, to be President of the Local Government Board.

Right Hon. Anthony John Mundella appointed Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education.

The Most Noble Hugh Lupus, Duke of Westminster, took oaths as Master of the Horse; the Right Hon. John Robert, Earl Sydney, as Lord Steward; the Right Hon. Valentine Augustus, Earl of Kenmare, as Lord Chamberlain; the Right Hon. William Patrick Adam, First Commissioner of Works; the Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade; the Right Hon. John George Dodson, as President of the Local Government Board; and the Right Hon. Henry Fawcett as Postmaster-General.

The Right Hon. John Robert, Earl

Sydney, G.C.B., to be Lord Steward of H.M.'s Household, in the room of Right Hon. Frederick, Earl Beauchamp, resigned; Right Hon. Gavin, Earl of Breadalbane, to be Treasurer of H.M.'s Household, in the room of Right Hon. Henry Frederick Thynne (commonly called Lord Henry Thynne), resigned; and Right Hon. William Lord Kensington, to be Controller of H.M.'s Household, in the room of Right Hon. Hugh de Grey Seymour (commonly called Earl of Yarmouth), resigned.

Right Hon. Richard Edmund St. Lawrence, Earl of Cork and Orrery, K.P., to be Master of H.M.'s Buckhounds, in the room of Right Hon. Charles Philip, Earl of Hardwicke, resigned.

Robert Jocelyn Alexander, Esq., B.A., Brasenose College, Oxford; Arthur Cartwright, Esq., B.A., Queen's College, Oxford; Frederick Thomas Green, Esq., B.A., New College, Oxford; Christopher Francis Harrison, Esq., B.A., University College, Oxford; Arthur William Newton, Esq., B.A., Trinity College, Cambridge; and John Tillard, Esq., B.A., St. John's College, Cambridge, to be six of H.M.'s Inspectors of Schools.

William Yuill King, Esq., M.A. University of Glasgow, and B.A. Balliol College, Oxford, and Alexander Lobban, Esq., M.A., University of Aberdeen, to be two of H.M.'s Inspectors of Schools in Scotland.

Valentine Augustus, Earl of Kenmare, K.P., to be Lord Chamberlain of H.M.'s Household, in the room of William Henry, Earl of Mount-Edgcumbe, resigned; Right Hon. Charles William Brudenell-Bruce (commonly called Lord Charles Bruce), to be Vice-Chamberlain of H.M.'s Household, in the room of the Viscount Barrington, resigned; Alexander William George, Earl of Fife, to be Captain of H.M.'s Honourable Corps of Gentlemen-at-Arms, in the room of George William, Earl of Coventry, resigned; William John, Lord Monson, to be Captain of H.M.'s Guard of Yeomen of the Guard, in the room of Edward, Earl of Lathom, resigned.

The Duchess of Bedford to be Mistress of the Robes, in the room of the Duchess of Wellington, resigned.

Sir Henry James, Knt., one of H.M.'s Counsel learned in the Law, to be H.M.'s Attorney-General, in the place of Sir John Holker, Knt.; and Farrer Herschell, Esq., one of H.M.'s Counsel learned in the Law, to be H.M.'s Soli-

citor-General, in the place of Sir Hardinge Stanley Giffard, Knt.

Alexander Campbell Onslow, Esq., (late Attorney-General of British Honduras), to be Attorney-General for the colony of Western Australia.

— 4. Augustus Frederick Gore, Esq. (late Lieutenant-Governor of Tobago), to be Administrator of the Government and Colonial Secretary of the Island of St. Vincent.

Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Colonel Sir Charles Knight Pearson, K.C.M.G., C.B., half-pay, late 3rd Foot, to be Governor and Commandant of the Royal Victoria Hospital, Netley, vice Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Colonel R. C. Stewart, half-pay, late 2nd Foot, appointed to command a Brigade in Madras.

— 5. Right Hon. William Ewart Gladstone, Sir Arthur Divett Hayter, Bart., John Holms, Esq., and Charles Cecil Cotes, Esq., to be Commissioners for executing the offices of Treasurer of the Exchequer of Great Britain and Lord High Treasurer of Ireland.

John M'Laren, Esq., to be H.M.'s Advocate for Scotland.

Robert Lee, Esq., Advocate, to be one of the Lords of Session in Scotland, in the room of Charles Neaves, Esq., deceased.

John Hay Athol Macdonald, Esq., Advocate, to be Sheriff of the Shire or Sherifdom of Perth, in the room of Robert Lee, Esq., appointed a Lord Ordinary of the Court of Session.

Rev. George David Boyle, M.A., to the Deanery of the Cathedral Church at Salisbury, void by the death of the Very Rev. Henry Parr Hamilton, late Dean thereof.

— 6. Lord Edmond George Fitzmaurice, M.P., to be H.M.'s Commissioner on the European Commission for the organisation of Eastern Roumelia under the 18th Article of the Treaty of Berlin.

The Most Hon. the Marquess of Ripon, K.G., to be Governor-General of India.

Right Hon. Sir William George Granville Vernon-Harcourt, Knt., being one of H.M.'s Principal Secretaries of State, to be an Ecclesiastical Commissioner for England.

John Blair Balfour, Esq., Advocate, to be Solicitor-General for Scotland.

— 7. Right Hon. William Ewart Gladstone, to be Chancellor and Under-Treasurer of H.M.'s Exchequer.

Right Hon. George Osborne Morgan, Q.C., to be Advocate-General or Judge-Martial of H.M.'s Forces.

Rev. Thomas Rees Walters, B.A., to the perpetual curacy of St. David's, Carmarthen, in the county of Carmar-

then and diocese of St. David's, vacant by the death of the Rev. David Archard Williams.

— 10. To be Lords in Waiting in Ordinary to Her Majesty:—

Frederick Henry Paul, Lord Methuen, in the room of William, Lord Bagot, resigned.

Lawrance, Earl of Zetland, in the room of Charles Adolphus, Earl of Dunmore, resigned.

William, Earl of Listowel, in the room of Dudley Charles FitzGerald, Lord de Ros, resigned.

Thomas, Lord Ribblesdale, in the room of William Buller Fullerton, Lord Elphinstone, resigned.

Charles Douglas Richard, Lord Sudeley, in the room of John Major, Lord Henniker, resigned.

Arthur, Lord Wrottesley, in the room of Cornwallis Viscount Hawarden, resigned.

His Excellency Monsieur Léon Say, Ambassador from the French Republic, delivered his credentials; and Doctor Don Toribio Sanz delivered the letter of recall of Doctor Don Carlos Pividal as Minister Resident, and his own credentials as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from the Republic of Peru.

Members returned to serve in the present Parliament:—Borough of Hackney. — Right Hon. Henry Fawcett, H.M.'s Postmaster-General; John Holms, Esq., one of the Commissioners for executing the office of Treasurer of the Exchequer of Great Britain and Lord High Treasurer of Ireland.

City of Bath.—Sir Arthur Divett Hayter, Bart., one of the Commissioners for executing the office of Treasurer of the Exchequer of Great Britain and Lord High Treasurer of Ireland.

Borough of Birmingham.—Right Hon. John Bright, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster; Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade.

Borough of Bradford.—Right Hon. William Edward Forster, Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

Borough of Marlborough.—Right Hon. Charles William Brudenell Bruce (commonly called Lord Charles Bruce), Vice-Chamberlain of H.M.'s Household.

Borough of Pontefract.—Right Hon. Hugh Culling Eardley Childers, one of H.M.'s Principal Secretaries of State.

Borough of Sheffield.—Right Hon. Anthony John Mundella, Vice-President of the Committee of the Privy Council for Education.

City of Chester.—Right Hon. John

George Dodson, President of the Local Government Board.

Borough of Taunton.—Sir Henry James, Knt., H.M.'s Attorney-General.

Town of Nottingham.—Arnold Morley, Esq., in the place of John Skirrow Wright, Esq., deceased.

Borough of Kidderminster.—John Brinton, Esq.

County of Edinburgh.—Right Hon. William Ewart Gladstone, First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer.

Borough of Leeds.—Herbert John Gladstone, Esq., in the place of Right Hon. William Ewart Gladstone, who has accepted the offices of First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer.

City of Durham.—Farrer Herschell, Esq., H.M.'s Solicitor-General.

Town and Port of Hastings.—Thomas Brassey, Esq., one of the Commissioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral.

Borough of Shrewsbury.—Charles Cecil Cotes, Esq., one of the Commissioners for executing the office of Treasurer of the Exchequer of Great Britain and Lord High Treasurer of Ireland.

City of Oxford.—Alexander William Hall, Esq., in the place of Right Hon. Sir William George Granville Venables Vernon-Harcourt, appointed to the office of one of H.M.'s Principal Secretaries of State.

— 11. 85th Foot.—General Sir Henry Perceval de Bathe, Bart., from the 89th Foot, to be Colonel, vice Lieut.-Gen. P. Hill, C.B., deceased.

89th Foot.—General John Arthur Lambert to be Colonel, vice General Sir H. P. de Bathe, Bart., transferred to the 85th Foot.

— 12. Right Hon. Thomas George, Earl of Northbrook, G.C.B.; Admiral Sir Astley Cooper Key, K.O.B.; Vice-Admiral John Hay (commonly called Lord John Hay), C.B.; Rear-Admiral Anthony Hiley Hoskins, C.B.; and Thomas Brassey, Esq., to be H.M.'s Commissioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral of the said United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Dominions, Islands, and Territories thereunto belonging.

Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. Town of Haverfordwest.—Right Hon. William Edwards, Baron Kensington, Controller of H.M.'s Household.

— 13. James Spencer Hollings, Esq., to be a member of the Legislative Council of the Island of Montserrat.

Farrer Herschell, Esq., M.P., Q.C.,

H.M.'s Solicitor-General, received the honour of Knighthood.

John William Harris, Esq., to be H.M.'s Consul for Denmark, to reside at Copenhagen.

— 14. Members returned to serve in the present Parliament:—County of Denbigh.—Right Hon. George Osborne Morgan, H.M.'s Judge Advocate-General.

Clackmannan and Kinross.—Right Hon. William Patrick Adam, First Commissioner of H.M.'s Works and Public Buildings.

His Royal Highness Prince Alfred Ernest Albert, Duke of Edinburgh, Duke of Saxony, Prince of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, K.G., declared a Knight of the Most Illustrious Order of Saint Patrick, as a mark of the sense entertained by Her Majesty of the services rendered by His Royal Highness in administering relief in Ireland.

— 17. Right Hon. Anthony John Mundella to be Fourth Commissioner for England and Wales.

— 19. Right Hon. John Poyntz, Earl Spencer, K.G., took the oaths of allegiance and office as Lord President of H.M.'s Most Honourable Privy Council.

The Lord President of the Council, Right Hon. Earl Granville, K.G., the Secretaries of State for the Home and War Departments, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the First Lord of the Admiralty, Right Hon. William Edward Forster, the President of the Local Government Board, and Right Hon. Anthony John Mundella (Vice-President), to be a Committee of Council on Education.

The Lord President of the Council, the Most Noble the Duke of Argyll, K.T., the Secretary of State for the Home Department, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Right Hon. William Patrick Adam, the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, and Right Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone Grant Duff, to be a Committee of Council on Education in Scotland.

— 20. George Henry Charles, Viscount Enfield, to be one of H.M.'s Lords in Waiting in Ordinary, in the room of William Hillier, Earl of Onslow, resigned; and Lieut.-Col. the Hon. William Henry Peregrine Carington, M.P., to be one of H.M.'s Grooms in Waiting in Ordinary, in the room of Donald Cameron of Lochiel, Esq., M.P., resigned.

Members returned to serve in the present Parliament:—County of Lancaster, North-Eastern Division.—Right Hon. Spencer Compton Cavendish

(commonly called Marquess of Hartington), one of H.M.'s Principal Secretaries of State.

Borough of New Radnor.—Samuel Charles Evans Williams, Esq., in the place of the Right Hon. Spencer Compton Cavendish (commonly called Marquess of Hartington), who has accepted the office of one of H.M.'s Principal Secretaries of State.

Town and Port of Sandwich.—Charles Henry Crompton-Roberts, Esq., in the place of Right Hon. Edward Hugessen Knatchbull-Hugessen, Esq., who has accepted the office of Steward of H.M.'s Manor of Northstead.

Borough of Mallow.—William Moore Johnson, Esq., H.M.'s Solicitor-General for Ireland.

Wigtown District of Burghs.—Mark John Stewart, Esq., in the place of John M'Laren, Esq., who has accepted the office of H.M.'s Advocate for Scotland.

— 21. County of Londonderry.—Right Hon. Hugh Law, H.M.'s Attorney-General for Ireland.

Right Hon. Robert Lowe, created Viscount Sherbrooke, of Sherbrooke, in the county of Surrey.

Right Hon. William Francis Cowper-Temple, created Baron Mount-Temple, of Mount-Temple in the county of Sligo.

— 22. Right Hon. Edward Hugessen Knatchbull-Hugessen, created Baron Brabourne, of Brabourne, in the county of Kent.

Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. County of Meath.—Alexander Martin Sullivan, Esq., in the place of Charles Stuart Parnell, Esq., who, having been returned for the said county and also for the county of Mayo and the city of Cork, has elected to sit for the city of Cork:

— 24. Right Hon. George Grenfell, Lord Wolverton, took the oaths of allegiance and office as Paymaster-General, in the presence of the Lord President of the Council.

— 26. Raphael Borg, Esq., to be H.M.'s Vice-Consul at Cairo.

— 27. Members returned to serve in the present Parliament:—Borough of Derby.—Right Hon. William George Granville Venables Vernon-Harcourt, one of H.M.'s Principal Secretaries of State, in the place of Samuel Plimsoll, Esq., who has accepted the Chiltern Hundreds.

Borough of Chipping Wycombe.—Lieut.-Col. the Hon. William Henry Peregrine Carington, one of the Grooms in Waiting on Her Majesty.

County of Mayo.—Isaac Nelson, of Sugarfield, Belfast, in place of Charles

Stuart Parnell, Esq., who, having been returned for the said county and also for the county of Meath and the city of Cork, has elected to sit for the city of Cork.

— 28. To be an Extra Member of the First Class, or Knights Grand Cross of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George:—His Royal Highness Prince Leopold George Duncan Albert, Duke of Saxony, Prince of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, K.G., K.T., G.C.S.I.

To be an Ordinary Member of the First Class, or Knights Grand Cross of the said Most Distinguished Order:—General Sir Arthur Borton, K.C.B., Governor of the Island of Malta.

To be Ordinary Members of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the said Most Distinguished Order:—Major George Cumine Strahan, C.M.G., Governor of the Colony of Tasmania; Frederick Aloysius Weld, Esq., C.M.G., Governor of the Straits Settlements; William Vallance Whiteway, Esq., Attorney-General and Premier of the Island of Newfoundland.

To be Ordinary Members of the Third Class, or Companions of the said Most Distinguished Order:—Captain Arthur Elibank Havelock, Chief Civil Commissioner for the Seychelles Islands; Alfred Domett, Esq., late Secretary for Crown Lands and Prime Minister for the Colony of New Zealand; John Bates Thurston, Esq., Colonial Secretary and Auditor-General of Fiji; Cecil Clementi Smith, Esq., Colonial Secretary for the Straits Settlements; Francis John Villiers, Esq., Acting Colonial Secretary, Griqualand West.

— 29. Lieut.-Col. his Royal Highness Arthur William Patrick Albert, Duke of Connaught and Strathearn, K.G., K.T., K.P., G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., Rifle Brigade, to be Colonel.

Brevet Colonel his Royal Highness Arthur William Patrick Albert, Duke of Connaught and Strathearn, K.G., K.T., K.P., G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., from Lieut.-Col., Rifle Brigade, to be Major-General.

Field-Marshal his Royal Highness Albert Edward, Prince of Wales and Duke of Cornwall, K.G., K.T., G.C.B., K.P., G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., Colonel of the 10th Hussars, from Colonel-in-Chief of the Rifle Brigade, to be Colonel-in-Chief of the following regiments:—1st Life Guards, 2nd Life Guards, Royal Horse Guards.

Major-General his Royal Highness Arthur William Patrick Albert, Duke of Connaught and Strathearn, K.G.,

K.T., K.P., G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., to be Colonel-in-Chief of the Rifle Brigade, vice Field-Marshal his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, transferred to the Colonelcy-in-Chief of the regiments of Cavalry of the Household Brigade.

— 31. Robert Pipon Marett, Esq., Bailiff of H.M.'s Island of Jersey, to be a Knight of the United Kingdom.

Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. County of Louth.—Alan Henry Bellingham, Esq., in the place of Alexander Martin Sullivan, Esq., who has accepted the office of Steward of H.M.'s Manor of Northstead.

Fitzroy Pleydell Goddard, Esq., to be H.M.'s Consul for the Cape Verd Islands, to reside at St. Vincent.

June 1. Royal Military Academy (Woolwich).—Major-General James Frankfort Manners Browne, C.B., Royal Engineers, to be Governor, vice Lieut.-Gen. Sir J. M. Adye, K.C.B., Royal Artillery, who has been appointed Surveyor-General of the Ordnance.

Lieutenant the Hon. Charles George Lascelles, half-pay, late 9th Lancers, to be extra Aide-de-camp to the Lieut.-Gen. and General-Governor of Ireland.

— 9. The Hon. Sir Alexander Tilloch Galt, G.C.M.G., to be the High Commissioner for Canada.

— 15. Lieut.-Col. Francis Baring, late Scots Fusilier Guards, to be one of the Exons of H.M.'s Royal Body Guard of Yeomen of the Guard, vice Lieut.-Col. John A. Todd, deceased.

— 19. Lieut.-Gen. Sir Garnet Joseph Wolseley, K.C.B., G.C.M.G., to be an Ordinary Member of the Military Division of the First Class, or Knights Grand Cross of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath.

— 23. Hon. Anthony Evelyn Melbourne Ashley, to be Second Church Estates Commissioner, in the room of Thomas Salt, Esq., resigned.

— 28. His Excellency Monsieur Léon Say, Ambassador from the French Republic, delivered his letter of recall; Lieut.-Gen. de Bülow, late Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary H.M. the King of Denmark, took leave of Her Majesty; Monsieur Alexandre Contostavlos, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from H.M. the King of the Hellenes; and Monsieur Christian Frederik de Falbe, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from H.M. the King of Denmark, delivered their credentials.

— 30. Major Sir George Cumine Strahan, K.O.M.G. (late Governor of

the Windward Islands), to be Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of Tasmania and its dependencies.

Members returned to serve in the present Parliament:—Borough of Dungenannon.—James Dickson, Esq., in the place of Thomas Alexander Dickson, Esq., whose election was determined to be void.

Borough of Bandon Bridge.—Richard Lane Allman, Esq., in the place of Percy Brodrick Barnard, Esq., who has accepted the Chiltern Hundreds.

July 1. Borough of Wallingford.—Pandeli Ralli, Esq., in the place of Walter Wren, Esq., whose election has been determined to be void.

— 2. Borough of Gravesend.—Sir Sydney Hedley Waterlow, Bart., in the place of Thomas Bevan, Esq., whose election was determined to be void.

Lieut.-Col. and Brevet Colonel John Prevost Battersby, half-pay late 60th Foot, now Commandant of the Royal Military Asylum, to be Assistant Director of Military Education, vice Lieut.-Col. C. B. Brackenbury, Royal Artillery, who has resigned that appointment.

Royal Military Asylum.—Major and Brevet Lieut.-Col. Hugh Mackenzie, half-pay late 15th Foot, to be Commandant, vice Brevet Colonel Battersby, appointed Assistant Director of Military Education.

His Excellency Chao Phya Bhanuwongse Maha Kosa Tibodi ti Phraklang, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary from His Majesty the King of Siam, delivered his credentials, and presented to Her Majesty the Insignia of the Most Exalted Order of the White Elephant of Siam; and his Excellency Monsieur Challemlacour, Ambassador from the French Republic, delivered his credentials.

George James Evelyn, Esq., to be a member of the Executive Council of the Island of St. Christopher.

— 3. Henry Rawlins Pippon Schooles, Esq., to be Attorney-General for the colony of British Honduras.

— 5. David Brown, Esq., to be a member of the Legislative Council of the Straits Settlements.

— 6. Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. County of Bute.—Charles Dalrymple, of Arden Craig, in the place of Thomas Russell, Esq., who, having held a contract entered into for the public service at the time of his election for the said county, was incapable of being elected for the same.

— 8. The President of the Royal Academy, to be an *ex officio* member of the Board of Trustees of the National Portrait Gallery.

Peter George Fitzgerald, of Valentia, in the county of Kerry, Esq. (commonly called the Knight of Kerry), to be a Baronet of the United Kingdom.

— 9. Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. Borough of Evesham.—Frederick Lehmann, Esq., in the place of Daniel Rowlinson Ratcliff, Esq., whose election was determined to be void.

— 10. To be an Honorary Member of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George:—His Excellency Chao Phya Bhanuwongse Maha Kosa Tibodi ti Phraklang, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of His Majesty the King of Siam.

To be Honorary Members of the Third Class, or Companions of the said Most Distinguished Order:—Phya Ratna Kosa, First Secretary to the Special Embassy of His Majesty the King of Siam; Prince Prisdang, Second Secretary and Interpreter to the Special Embassy of His Majesty the King of Siam.

Robert James Frecheville, Esq., to be an Inspector of Metalliferous Mines, under the Metalliferous Mines Regulation Act, 1872.

Members returned to serve in the present Parliament. Borough of Plymouth.—Edward George Clarke, Esq., Q.C., in the place of Sir Edward Bates, Bart., whose election was determined to be void.

— 12. Borough of Tewkesbury.—Richard Biddulph Martin, Esq., in the place of William Edwin Price, Esq., whose election was determined to be void.

George Maurice O'Rorke, Esq., Speaker of the House of Representatives of the Colony of New Zealand, to be a Knight of the United Kingdom.

— 13. Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. Borough of Bewdley.—Enoch Baldwin, Esq., in the place of Charles Harrison, Esq., whose election was determined to be void.

— 15. Arthur Algernon Capel, Earl of Essex, Viscount Malden, and Baron Capell, of Hadham, in the county of Hertford, received royal licence and authority that he and his issue may resume the ancient orthography of his family name by using and bearing the surname of Capell, in lieu and in substitution of that of Capel.

— 16. Charles Thomas Maude, Esq., now a Third Secretary, to be a Second Secretary in H.M.'s Diplomatic Service.

Charles Alban Buckler, Esq., to be Surrey Herald of Arms Extraordinary.

4th Hussars.—General William Parlbj, from the 21st Hussars, to be Colonel, vice General Lord G. A. F. Paget, K.C.B., deceased.

21st Hussars.—Lieut.-Gen. the Hon. James William Bosville Macdonald, C.B., to be Colonel, vice General W. Parlbj, transferred to the 4th Hussars.

— 19. Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. City of Lichfield.—Theophilus John Levett, Esq., in the place of Richard Dyott, Esq., whose election was determined to be void.

— 21. Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. Town of Berwick-upon-Tweed.—David Milne Home, Esq., Captain in the Royal Horse Guards, in the place of the Hon. Henry Strutt (now Lord Belper), called up to the House of Peers.

— 24. Captain Walter Douglas Somerset Campbell, of the 79th Highlanders, to be one of the Grooms in Waiting in Ordinary to Her Majesty, in the room of John Francis Campbell, of Islay, Esq., resigned.

— 29. Richard Greaves Townley, Esq., to be a Third Secretary in H.M.'s Diplomatic Service.

— 30. John Pierrepont Edwards, Esq., now British Vice-Consul at New York, to be H.M.'s Consul at New York.

— 31. Philip Protheroe Smith, Esq., Mayor of Truro; and George Henry Chambers, Esq., Chairman of the London and St. Katherine Docks Company, to be Knights of the United Kingdom.

M. Callimaki Catargi, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from His Royal Highness the Prince of Roumania, delivered his credentials; and M. J. Marinovitch, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from His Highness the Prince of Servia, delivered his credentials.

August 2. Members returned to serve in the present Parliament:—Borough of Scarborough.—The Right Hon. John George Dodson, in the place of Sir Harcourt Vanden Bempde Johnstone, Bart., appointed a Steward of H.M.'s manor of Chiltern Hundreds.

Wigtown District of Burghs.—Admiral the Right Hon. Sir John Charles Dalrymple Hay, Bart., in the place of Mark John Stewart, Esq., whose election was determined to be void.

— 3. George William Des Vœux, Esq., C.M.G., to be Governor and Com-

mander-in-Chief of the Bahama Islands.

— 5. Augustus Frederick Gore, Esq. (late Lieutenant-Governor of Tobago), to be Lieutenant-Governor of the Island of St. Vincent.

— 9. Captain Arthur John Bigge, Royal Artillery, to be Assistant Keeper of the Privy Purse and Assistant Private Secretary to Her Majesty.

Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. City of Liverpool.—Claud John Hamilton, Esq. (commonly called Lord Claud John Hamilton), in the place of John William Ramsay (commonly called Lord Ramsay), now Earl of Dalhousie, called up to the House of Peers as Baron Ramsay.

— 10. Stephen Isaacson Tucker, Esq., Rouge Croix Pursuivant of Arms, granted by Letters Patent the office of Somerset Herald, vacant by the decease of James Robinson Planché, Esq.

— 11. The Hon. Sir Arthur Hamilton Gordon, G.C.M.G. (now Governor of Fiji and H.M.'s High Commissioner for the Western Pacific Ocean), to be Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of New Zealand and its dependencies.

— 12. To be Ordinary Members of the Third Class, or Companions of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George:—Lieut.-Col. Falkland George Edgeworth Warren, R.A.; Captain Andrew Gilbert Wauchope; Gerald Fitzgerald, Esq.

Henry Austin, Esq., to be Chief Justice of the Bahama Islands.

— 13. Michael Solomon, Esq., to be a member of the Legislative Council of the Island of Jamaica; and George Clarke Pile, Esq., to be a member of the Legislative Council of the Island of Barbados.

— 14. Edward James Reed, Esq., C.B., late Chief Constructor of the Navy, to be an Ordinary Member of the Civil Division of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath.

— 17. To be an Ordinary Member of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George:—Colonel John Carstairs M'Neill, V.C., C.B., C.M.G.

— 18. William Amelius Aubrey de Vere, Duke of St. Albans, to be Lieutenant and Custos Rotulorum of the county of Nottingham, in the room of Edward, Lord Belper, deceased.

— 21. Sir Hercules George Robert Robinson, G.C.M.G. (Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of

New Zealand), to be Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope and its dependencies, and to be H.M.'s High Commissioner for South Africa.

— 23. Sir George Cumine Strahan, K.C.M.G., to administer the Government of the Cape of Good Hope and its dependencies, and to be H.M.'s High Commissioner for South Africa until Sir Hercules George Robert Robinson, G.C.M.G., enters upon the duties of the said office.

Lieut.-Gen. Sir John Henry Lefroy, K.C.M.G., C.B., to administer the Government of the Colony of Tasmania and its dependencies.

— 24. Major the Lord Gifford, V.C., to be Colonial Secretary for the Colony of Western Australia and Senior Member of the Legislative Council of that Colony.

— 27. Henry Farnham Burke, Esq., received by letters patent the office of Rouge Croix Pursuivant of Arms, vacant by the promotion of Stephen Isaacson Tucker, Esq., to the office of Somerset Herald.

Sept. 1. The Queen has been graciously pleased to direct letters patent to be passed under the Great Seal of the United Kingdom for the annexation to the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope of certain British Possessions or Territories in the Transkei, known as Tembuland, Emigrant Tambookieland, Bomvanaland, and Galekaland.

— 2. Frederick Napier Broome, Esq., C.M.G., Colonial Secretary of Mauritius, to be Lieutenant-Governor of that Colony.

Rev. Frederick Walker nominated to the Perpetual Curacy of the parish of Kingswear, in the county of Devon, and diocese of Exeter, void by the death of the Rev. John Smart, B.A.

— 3. Arthur Raby, Esq., now H.M.'s Consul at Portland, to be H.M.'s Consul for the province of Livonia, to reside at Riga; and Lewis Joel, Esq., now H.M.'s Consul at Brindisi, to be H.M.'s Consul for the State of Georgia, to reside at Savannah.

Mr. Arthur Powys Vaughan, to be one of H.M.'s Inspectors of Factories and Workshops.

— 10. Charles George Merewether, Esq., one of H.M.'s Counsel, John Shortt, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, and Albert Childers Meysey-Thompson, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, to be Commissioners for the purpose of making inquiry into the existence of corrupt practices at the last Election for the Borough of Macclesfield.

Arthur Hammond Collins, Esq., one of H.M.'s Counsel, Alfred Tristram Lawrence, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, and Frank Lockwood, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, to be Commissioners for the purpose of making inquiry into the existence of corrupt practices at the last Election for the City of Chester.

John Bridge Aspinall, Esq., one of H.M.'s Counsel, William Robert McConnell, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, and Francis William Raikes, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, to be Commissioners for the purpose of making inquiry into the existence of corrupt practices at the last Election for the City of Gloucester.

Arthur Charles, Esq., one of H.M.'s Counsel, Albert Venn Dicey, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, and Robert Samuel Wright, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, to be Commissioners for the purpose of making inquiry into the existence of corrupt practices at the last Election the City of Canterbury.

James William Bowen, Esq., one of H.M.'s Counsel, Richard Henn Collins, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, and William Alexander Lindsay, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, to be Commissioners for the purpose of making inquiry into the existence of corrupt practices at the last Election for the borough of Boston.

Lewis William Cave, Esq., one of H.M.'s Counsel, Hugh Cowie, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, and Edward Ridley, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, to be Commissioners for the purpose of making inquiry into the existence of corrupt practices at the last Election for the City of Oxford.

William Haworth Holl, Esq., one of H.M.'s Counsel, Richard Edward Turner, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, and Francis Henry Jenne, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, to be Commissioners for the purpose of making inquiry into the existence of corrupt practices at the last Election for the Borough of Sandwich.

Charles Marshall Griffith, Esq., one of H.M.'s Counsel, Henry Mason Bompas, Esq., one of H.M.'s Counsel, and Charles Crompton, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, to be Commissioners for the purpose of making inquiry into the existence of corrupt practices at the last Election for the Borough of Knaresborough.

— 11. J. Thomas Fitzgerald Callaghan, Esq., C.M.G. (late Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Falkland Islands), to be Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Bahama Islands; and Captain Francis Theophilus Blunt, Inspector of Immigrants in

Mauritius, to be Chief Civil Commissioner for the Seychelles Islands.

— 13. Thomas Kerr, Esq. (late Judge of the Assistant Court of Appeal, Barbados), to be Governor and Commander-in-Chief of H.M.'s Settlements in the Falkland Islands and their dependencies; and William James McKinney, Esq., late Postmaster of British Honduras, to be Treasurer of that Colony.

— 14. John William, Earl of Dalhousie, in the room of Lawrence, Earl of Zetland, resigned; William, Lord Sandhurst, in the room of William, Earl of Listowel, resigned; and Thomas John, Lord Thurlow, in the room of George Henry Charles, Viscount Enfield, resigned—to be Lords in Waiting in Ordinary.

— 18. John Campbell, Earl of Aberdeen, to be Lieutenant of shire of Aberdeen, in the room of Francis Alexander, Earl of Kintore, deceased.

The Rev. Charles Johnson Taylor, M.A., to the rectory of Toppesfield, in the County of Essex and Diocese of St. Albans, void by the resignation of the Rev. Robert Hall Baynes, M.A.

Ralph Charlton Palmer, Esq., to be Clerk of the Crown in Chancery, in the room of Charles Romilly, Esq., resigned.

Henry Brougham Loch, Esq., C.B., to be an Ordinary Member of the Civil Division of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath.

— 20. Lieut.-Col. Beresford Lovett, C.S.I., to be H.M.'s Consul for the Provinces on the South of the Caspian Sea and the North-East of Persia, to reside at Asterabad.

— 21. Lieut.-Gen. Donald Martin Stewart, K.C.B., and Major-General Frederick Sleigh Roberts, K.C.B., to be Ordinary Members of the Military Division of the First Class, or Knights Grand Cross of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath.

Rev. William John Butler, M.A., to have the dignity of a Canon in the Cathedral Church of Worcester, void by the death of Rev. Richard Seymour.

— 24. Frederick Holmwood, Esq., now British Vice-Consul at Zanzibar, to be H.M.'s Consul for the dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar.

— 30. The Rev. William Barker, M.A., Vicar of St. Mary's, West Cowes, and Hon. Chaplain to the Queen, to be Chaplain in Ordinary to Her Majesty; the Rev. James Fleming, B.D., Canon Residentiary of York, Vicar of St. Michael's, Chester Square, London, and

Hon. Chaplain to the Queen, to be Chaplain in Ordinary to Her Majesty; and the Rev. Edward Capel Cure, M.A., Rector of St. George, Hanover Square, London, to be Hon. Chaplain to Her Majesty.

Oct. 4. Sir Sandford Freeling, K.C.M.G., to be Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of Trinidad and its dependencies.

— 5. George William Des Vœux, Esq., C.M.G., to be Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of Fiji.

— 11. Right Hon. William Patrick Adam, M.P., to be Governor of the Presidency of Fort St. George, at Madras, in the East Indies.

Major Evelyn Baring, R.A., C.S.I., to be an Ordinary Member of the Council of the Governor-General of India, in the room of Sir John Strachey, G.C.S.I., C.I.E.

— 12. Sir Charles Rivers Wilson, K.C.M.G., C.B., and Major Evelyn Baring, C.S.I., obtained Royal licence and authority to accept and wear the insignia of the First Class of the Turkish Order of the Medjidieh; and to Auckland Colvin, Esq., Royal licence and authority to accept and wear the insignia of the Second Class of the Turkish Order of Medjidieh, which the Khedive of Egypt, authorised by His Imperial Majesty the Sultan, was pleased to confer upon them, in approbation of their services while actually and entirely employed by the Khedive beyond H.M.'s dominions.

— 18. Lieut.-Gen. Sir Donald Martin Stewart, G.C.B., to be an Ordinary Member of the Council of the Governor-General of India, in the room of General Sir Edwin Beaumont Johnson, K.O.B., C.I.E.

Charles Dickinson Field, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service, to be a Judge of the High Court of Judicature at Fort William, in Bengal, in the place of Sir Louis Stewart Jackson, C.I.E.

— 23. Neale Porter, Esq., President of the Island of Montserrat, to be a Member of the Legislative Council of that Island; and Etienne Pellereau, Esq., to be Substitute-Procureur and Advocate-General for the Colony of Mauritius.

— 25. To be Ordinary Members of the second Class, or Knights Commanders of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George:—Sir Daniel Cooper, Bart., for services rendered to the colony of New South Wales, more particularly in connection with the International Exhibition held at Sydney in 1878–80; Patrick Jennings,

Esq., C.M.G., Executive Commissioner at the International Exhibition held in Sydney in 1879-80.

To be an Ordinary Member of the Third Class, or Companion of the said Most Distinguished Order:—John Davies, Esq., for service rendered at the International Exhibition in 1879-80, especially in assisting British visitors.

— 27. To be an Ordinary Member of the Civil Division of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath:—Charles John Herries, Esq., C.B., Chairman of the Board of Inland Revenue.

To be Ordinary Members of the Civil Division of the Third Class, or Companions of the said Most Honourable Order:—Algernon Edward West, Esq., Deputy Chairman of the Board of Inland Revenue; Adam Young, Esq., Secretary to the Board of Inland Revenue.

— 30. To be Ordinary Members of the Third Class, or Companions of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George:—Colonel Richard Thomas Glyn, C.B., and Colonel William Pole Collingwood, for services in the late Zulu War; Captain Claude Bettington, for services in command of "Bettington's Horse" during the late Zulu War; Francis William Rowsell, Esq., C.B., British Member of the Commission appointed by His Highness the Khedive of Egypt for the management of the Daira Lands, for services rendered in connection with the Island of Malta.

Nov. 2. 99th Foot. — Lieut.-Gen. Henry James Warre, C.B., to be Colonel, vice General S. Braybrooke, deceased.

— 3. To be an Ordinary Member of the Second Class, or Knights Commanders of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George:—Virgile Naz, Esq., C.M.G., Member of the Council of Government of Mauritius, for services in connection with that Colony.

— 4. Henry Michael Jones, Esq., now H.M.'s Consul-General at Christiania, to be H.M.'s Consul-General in Eastern Roumelia, to reside at Philippopolis; Thomas Michell, Esq., C.B., now H.M.'s Consul-General in Eastern Roumelia, to be H.M.'s Consul-General for the Kingdom of Norway, to reside at Christiania; William Ward, Esq., now H.M.'s Consul at Bremen, to be H.M.'s Consul for the State of Maine, to reside at Portland; Octavus Stokes, Esq., now British Vice-Consul at Sulina, to be H.M.'s Consul

for the Free City and Territory of Bremen, the Grand Duchy of Oldenburg, the district of Wilhelmshaven, the province of Hanover, excepting the ports and places on the left bank of the River Elbe, up to and including the Town of Harburg, the Duchy of Brunswick, and the Principalities of Lippe Schaumburg, Lippe Detmold, and Waldeck Pyrmont, to reside at Bremen; and Hanmer Lewis Dupuis, Esq., now British Vice-Consul at Susa, to be H.M.'s Consul at Brindisi.

— 5. The Right Hon. Sir Robert Lush, Knt., to be one of the Lords Justices of the Court of Appeal.

Charles James Watkin Williams, Esq., one of H.M.'s Counsel learned in the Law, to be one of the Justices of the High Court of Justice.

— 9. To be a Knight Grand Commander of the Most Exalted Order of the Star of India:—His Highness the Nawab of Bahawalpur.

To be Companions:—Sirdar Bakhshi Gunda Singh, of Patiala; the Dewan Ram Jas, of Kuppurtalla.

— 11. Henry Edward Doyle, Esq., Director of the National Gallery of Ireland, and William Macleod, Esq., Inspector-General of Hospitals and Fleets, to be Ordinary Members of the Civil Division of the Third Class, or Companions of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath.

Sigismondo Savona, Esq. (Director-General of Education), and Adolfo Sciortino, Esq. (Receiver-General), to be Members of the Council of Government of the Island of Malta.

— 12. 28th Foot.—Lieut.-Gen. Julius Edmund Goodwyn, C.B., to be Colonel, vice General T. Brooke, deceased.

— 18. Mr. James Craig Loggie ceased to be a Member of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George, of which he was made a Companion in 1873, and his name was erased from the register of the Order.

— 22. To be Ordinary Members of the Third Class, or Companions of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George:—Lieut.-Col. the Hon. Edward George Percy Littleton, late Military Secretary to the Governor-General of the Dominion of Canada; and Capt. Henry Hallam Parr, late Military Secretary to the Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope.

— 23. Sir Adriano Dingli, LL.D., G.C.M.G., C.B. (Crown Advocate for the Island of Malta), to be Chief Justice of Malta and President of the Court of Appeal; and Giuseppe Carbone, Esq.,

L.L.D., to be Crown Advocate in that island.

— 24. John Frederick Debrot, Esq., now British Vice-Consul at Omoa, to be H.M.'s Consul for Omoa and Puerto Cabellos.

— 26. Royal Artillery.—Lieut.-Gen. Sir Charles Lawrence D'Aguilar, K.C.B., to be Colonel Commandant, vice Lieut.-Gen. C. J. Dalton, deceased.

— 27. Joseph Theodore Thibou, Esq., to be an Official Member of the Executive Council of the Island of Nevis so long as he shall hold the office of Registrar and Provost Marshal of that island.

Rev. Stephen Pering Lampen, M.A., Ph.D., to the rectory of Tempsford, in the county of Bedford and diocese of Ely, void by the death of the Rev. William Gifford Cookesley, the last incumbent.

— 30. Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. County of Renfrew.—Alexander Crum, Esq., of Thornliebank, in the county of Renfrew, in the place of Lieut.-Col. William Mure, deceased.

Henry Arrindell Hazell, Esq., to be a member of the Legislative Council of the Island of St. Vincent.

Dec. 1. The Most Noble Francis Charles Hastings, Duke of Bedford, by letters patent, under Royal Sign Manual, appointed Knight of the Most Noble Order of the Garter, duly invested with the Ensigns thereof, and full power and authority to exercise all rights and privileges belonging to a Knight Companion of the said Most Noble Order.

Rupert Alfred Kettle, Esq. of Merri-dale, Wolverhampton; Louis Stewart Jackson, Esq., C.I.E., late a Judge of the High Court of Judicature at Fort William, in Bengal; Watkin Williams, Esq., one of the Judges of H.M.'s Supreme Court of Judicature; and Lieut.-Col. Gustavus Hume, Lieutenant of H.M.'s Body Guard of the Honourable Corps of Gentlemen-at-Arms, received the honour of Knighthood.

John Duke, Baron Coleridge, to be Lord Chief Justice of England.

Members returned to serve in the present Parliament:—Combined Counties of Clackmannan and Kinross.—John Blair Balfour, Esq., Solicitor-

General for Scotland, in the place of the Right Hon. William Patrick Adam, appointed to the office of Governor of the Presidency of Fort St. George, at Madras.

— 2. County of Carnarvon.—William Rathbone, Esq., merchant and shipowner, in the place of Charles James Watkins Williams, Esq., appointed to the office of one of the Justices of the High Court of Justice.

— 4. Charles Colmore Grant, Esq., recognised a legal claimant to the title of Baron de Longueuil, of Longueuil, in the Province of Quebec, Canada. This title was conferred upon his ancestor, Charles de Moynes, by letters patent of Nobility signed by King Louis XIV. in the year 1700.

— 9. Sirdar Dewa Singh, Prime Minister of His Highness the Maharajah of Patiala, to be a Knight Commander of the Most Exalted Order of the Star of India.

— 15. Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. Borough of Reading.—George John Shaw-Lefevre, Esq., First Commissioner of H.M.'s Works and Public Buildings.

— 16. Marmaduke, Lord Herries, to be Lieutenant and Custos Rotulorum of the East Riding of the County of York, in the room of Beilby Richard, Lord Wenlock, deceased.

Loftus Thomas Monro, Esq., M.A., late Scholar of Queen's College, Cambridge, to be one of H.M.'s Inspectors of Schools.

Walter Watson Hughes, Esq., and Edward Baines, Esq., received the honour of Knighthood.

George John Shaw-Lefevre, Esq., M.P., was by Her Majesty's command sworn of H.M.'s Most Honourable Privy Council.

— 17. Member returned to serve in the present Parliament. Borough of Kendal.—James Cropper, Esq., in the place of John Whitwell, Esq., deceased.

— 27. Richard Redgrave, Esq., B.A., late of the Science and Art Department, to be an Ordinary Member of the Civil Division of the Third Class, or Companions of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath.

THE MINISTRIES.

LORD BEACONSFIELD'S
ADMINISTRATION,
January 1, 1880.

Cabinet.

MR. GLADSTONE'S
ADMINISTRATION,
December 31, 1880.

Cabinet.

<i>First Lord of the Treasury</i>	The Earl of Beaconsfield, K.G.	Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, M.P.
<i>Chancellor of the Exchequer.</i>	Right Hon. Sir Stafford H. Northcote, Bart., M.P.	Lord Selborne.
<i>Lord Chancellor</i>	Earl Cairns	Duke of Richmond, K.G.
<i>Lord President of the Council</i>	Duke of Northumberland	Duke of Argyll, K.T.
<i>Lord Privy Seal</i>	Marquess of Salisbury, K.G.	Earl Granville, K.G.
<i>Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.</i>	Viscount Cranbrook	Marquess of Hartington, M.P.
<i>Secretary of State for India</i>	Rt. Hon. Richard Assheton Cross, M.P.	Sir W. Vernon-Harcourt, M.P.
<i>Secretary of State for the Home Department.</i>	Rt. Hon. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, Bart., M.P.	Earl of Kimberley.
<i>Secretary of State for the Colonies</i>	Rt. Hon. Col. Frederick A. Stanley, M.P.	Rt. Hon. Hugh C. E. Childers, M.P.
<i>Secretary of State for War.</i>	Rt. Hon. W. H. Smith, M.P.	Earl of Northbrook.
<i>First Lord of the Admiralty</i>	<i>See below.</i>	Rt. Hon. W. E. Forster, M.P.
<i>Chief Secretary for Ireland</i>	<i>See below.</i>	Rt. Hon. John Bright, M.P.
<i>Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.</i>	Rt. Hon. Lord John Manners, M.P.	<i>See below.</i>
<i>Postmaster-General</i>	<i>See below.</i>	Rt. Hon. J. G. Dodson, M.P.
<i>President of the Local Government Board</i>	Rt. Hon. Viscount Sandon, M.P.	Rt. Hon. J. Chamberlain, M.P.
<i>President of the Board of Trade</i>		

<i>Lord Chamberlain</i>	Earl of Mount-Edgcumbe	Earl of Kenmare.
<i>Lord High Steward</i>	Earl Beauchamp	Earl Sydney.
<i>Master of the Horse</i>	Earl of Bradford	The Duke of Westminster.
<i>Master of the Buckhounds.</i>	Earl of Hardwicke	Earl of Cork.
<i>First Commissioner of Works</i>	Rt. Hon. G. J. Noel, M.P.	Rt. Hon. George Shaw-Lefevre, M.P. ¹
<i>Chief Secretary for Ireland</i>	Rt. Hon. James Lowther, M.P.	<i>See above.</i>
<i>Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster</i>	Rt. Hon. Lieut.-Col. Thomas E. Taylor, M.P.	<i>See above.</i>
<i>Postmaster-General</i>	<i>See above.</i>	Rt. Hon. Henry Fawcett, M.P.
<i>Vice-President of the Council</i>	Lord George Hamilton, M.P.	Rt. Hon. A. J. Mundella, M.P.
<i>President of the Local Government Board</i>	Rt. Hon. George Selater-Booth, M.P.	<i>See above.</i>

¹ Vice Rt. Hon. W. P. Adams, appointed Governor of Madras.

<i>Secretary to the Admiralty</i>	Hon. A. F. Egerton, M.P.	G. O. Trevelyan, Esq., M.P.
<i>Under-Secretary for India</i>	Hon. E. Stanhope, M.P.	Viscount Enfield. ²
<i>Under-Secretary for War</i>	Viscount Bury	Earl of Morley.
<i>Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs</i>	Hon. Robert Bourke, M.P.	Sir Charles Dilke, Bart. M.P.
<i>Under-Secretary for Home Department</i>	Sir M.W. Ridley, Bart., M.P.	Leonard H. Courtney, M.P. ¹
<i>Under-Secretary for the Colonies</i>	Earl Cadogan	Rt. Hon. M. E. Grant Duff, M.P.
<i>Civil Lord of the Admiralty</i>	Sir L. M. Lopes, M.P.	T. Brassey, M.P.
<i>Financial Secretary to the War Office</i>	Lieut.-Col. Loyd-Lindsay, M.P.	H. Campbell-Bannerman, M.P.
<i>Financial Secretary to the Treasury</i>	Sir H. Selwin-Ibbetson, Bart., M.P.	Lord F. Cavendish, M.P.
<i>Patronage Secretary to the Treasury</i>	Sir W. Hart-Dyke, Bart., M.P.	Lord R. Grosvenor, M.P.
	Rowland Winn, M.P.	Sir A. D. Hayter, M.P.
<i>Lords of the Treasury</i>	Sir J. D. Elphinstone, Bart., M.P.	John Holms, M.P.
	Viscount Crichton, M.P.	C. C. Cotes, M.P.
<i>Secretary to the Local Government Board</i>	T. J. Salt, M.P.	J. T. Hibbert, M.P.
<i>Comptroller of the Household</i>	Earl of Yarmouth, M.P.	Lord Kensington, M.P.
<i>Attorney-General</i>	Sir John Holker, M.P.	Sir Henry James, M.P.
<i>Solicitor-General</i>	Sir Hardinge Giffard, M.P.	Sir F. Herschell, M.P.
<i>Surveyor-General of Ordnance</i>	Lord Eustace Cecil, M.P.	Lieut.-Gen. Sir John Adye, K.C.B.
<i>Lord Lieutenant of Ireland</i>	Duke of Marlborough, K.G.	Earl Cowper, K.G.
<i>Lord Chancellor of Ireland</i>	Rt. Hon. J. T. Ball	Lord O'Hagan.
<i>Attorney-General of Ireland</i>	Rt. Hon. Edward Gibson, M.P.	Rt. Hon. Hugh Law, M.P.
<i>Lord Advocate for Scotland</i>	Rt. Hon. William Watson, M.P.	Rt. Hon. J. M'Laren, M.P.
<i>Solicitor-General for Scotland</i>	John H. A. Macdonald, M.P.	J. B. Balfour, M.P.
<i>Secretary to the Board of Trade</i>	J. G. Talbot, M.P.	Evelyn Ashley, M.P.
<i>Paymaster-General</i>	Rt. Hon. Stephen Cave, M.P.	Lord Wolverton.
<i>Treasurer of the Household</i>	Lord Henry Thynne, M.P.	Earl of Breadalbane.
<i>Vice-Chamberlain</i>	Viscount Barrington, M.P.	Lord Charles Bruce, M.P.
<i>Capt. Commanding the Body Guard</i>	Lord Skelmersdale	Lord Monson.
<i>Capt. Corps of Gentlemen-at-Arms</i>	Earl of Coventry	Earl of Fife.
	Admiral Sir Astley Cooper-Key, K.C.B.	Admiral Sir Astley Cooper-Key, K.C.B.
<i>Lords of the Admiralty</i>	Rear-Admiral A. Hood, C.B.	Vice-Admiral Lord John Hay.
	Rear-Admiral Earl Clanwilliam	Rear-Admiral Anthony J. Hoskins.
<i>Mistress of the Robes</i>	Duchess of Wellington	Duchess of Bedford.
<i>Governor-General of India</i>	Lord Lytton	Marquess of Ripon, K.G.
<i>Chairman of Ways and Means</i>	H. Cecil Raikes, M.P.	Rt. Hon. Dr. Lyon Playfair, M.P.

¹ Vice Marquess of Lansdowne, resigned.² Vice Arthur Peel, M.P., resigned.

SHERIFFS APPOINTED FOR THE YEAR 1880.

ENGLAND.

- BEDFORDSHIRE.—Major John Hatfield Brooks, of Manor House, Flitwick, Ampthill.
- BERKSHIRE.—Robert Burn Blyth, of Woolhampton, near Reading, Esq.
- BUCKINGHAMSHIRE.—Henry Cazenove, of Lilies, Hardwick-cum-Weedon, Esq.
- CAMBRIDGESHIRE AND HUNTINGDONSHIRE.—Robert Charles Catling, of Needham Hall, Eton, Esq.
- CHESHIRE.—Cudworth Halsted Poole, of Marbury, Whitchurch, Salop, Esq.
- CORNWALL.—Charles Glynn Prideaux Brune, of Prideaux Place, Padstow, Esq.
- CUMBERLAND.—James Lumb, of Homewood, Whitehaven, Esq.
- DERBYSHIRE.—Colonel Francis William Newdigate, of West Hallam.
- DEVONSHIRE.—Reginald Kelly, of Kelly, Lifton, Esq.
- DORSETSHIRE.—Walter Ralph Bankes, of Kingston-Lacy, Esq.
- DURHAM.—George John Scurfield, of Hurworth House, Esq.
- ESSEX.—Andrew Johnston, of Woodford, Esq.
- GLoucestershire.—Sir Gerald William Henry Codrington, of Dollington Park, Chipping Sodbury, Bart.
- HEREFORDSHIRE.—Benjamin Laurence Sanders, of Street Court, Leominster, Esq.
- HERTFORDSHIRE.—Charles Cholmeley Hall, of King's Walden.
- KENT.—Sir David Lionel Salomons, of Broome Hill, Southborough, Bart.
- LANCASHIRE.—Ralph John Aspinall, of Standen Hall, Esq.
- LEICESTERSHIRE.—John Trueman Mills, of Husband's Bosworth, Esq.
- LINCOLNSHIRE.—Edward Heneage, of Stainton Hall, Esq.
- MONMOUTHSHIRE.—Charles Edward Lewis, of St. Pierre, near Chepstow, Esq.
- NORFOLK.—Hamon le Strange, of Hunstanton Hall, Esq.
- NORTHAMPTONSHIRE.—Henry Vane Forester Holdien Hungerford, of Dingley Park, Esq.
- NORTHUMBERLAND.—Cadogan Henry Cadogan, of Brenkbury Priory, Esq.
- NOTTINGHAMSHIRE.—William Henry Coope Oates, of Langford, Esq.
- OXFORDSHIRE.—Lieut.-Colonel James Miller, of Shotover House.
- RUTLAND.—Westley Richard, of Ashwell, Esq.
- SHROPSHIRE.—Charles Donaldson Hudson, of Cheswardine Hall, Esq.
- SOMERSETSHIRE.—Edward James Stanley, of Quantock Lodge, Nether Stowey, Esq.
- COUNTY OF SOUTHAMPTON.—Henry Woods, of Warnford Park, Bishop's Waltham, Esq.
- STAFFORDSHIRE.—Walter Williams, of Sugnal Hall, Eccleshall, Esq.
- SUFFOLK.—George Henry Pocklington, of Chelsworth, Esq.
- SURREY.—Lieut.-Colonel Francis Burdett, of Ancaster House, Richmond Hill.

SUSSEX.—Anthony John Wright Biddulph, of Burton Park, Esq.
WARWICKSHIRE.—Charles Rowland Palmer-Morewood, of Ladbroke Hall, Esq.
WESTMORELAND.—Henry Gandy, of Castle Bank, Appleby, Esq.
WILTSHIRE.—Sir Edmund Antrobus, of Amesbury, Bart.
WORCESTERSHIRE.—Robert Woodward, of Arley Castle, near Bewdley.
YORKSHIRE.—Sir Charles William Strickland, of Hildenley, Bart.

WALES.

ANGLESEY.—Henry Plate, of Goddinog, near Bangor, Esq.
BRECONSHIRE.—George Watkins Rice Watkins, of Rhosferig, Esq., *vice* Captain Thomas Wood, of Gwernyfedd Park, Glasbury.
CARDIGANSHIRE.—George Ernest John Powell, of Nanlios, near Aberystwith, Esq.
CARMARTHENSHIRE.—William Francis David Saunders, of Glanrhydew, Kidwelly, Esq.
CARNARVONSHIRE.—Francis William Lloyd Edwards, of Nanhoron, Esq.
DENBIGHSHIRE.—Tom Naylor Layland, of Nantelwyd Hall, Ruthin, Esq.
FLINTSHIRE.—William Johnson, of Broughton Hall, Esq.
GLAMORGANSHIRE.—John Trevilian Jenkin, of the Mirador, Swansea, Esq.
MERIONETHSHIRE.—John Vaughan, of Nannau, Dolgelly, Esq.
MONTGOMERYSHIRE.—Robert John Harrison, of Caerhowel, Esq.
PEMBROKESHIRE.—John Frederick Lort Phillips, of Laurennys Castle, Esq.
RADNORSHIRE.—Samuel Charles Evans Williams, of Bryntirion Hall, Rhayader, Esq.

UNIVERSITY DISTINCTIONS.

OXFORD.

FINAL HONOUR SCHOOLS.

EASTER TERM.

Literæ Humaniores.

CLASS I.

Atkins, H., Brasenose.
Brise, E. J., Ruggles, Balliol.
Bristowe, L. S., Christ Church.
Cohn, J. R., Jesus.
Cook, E. T., New College.
Hamilton, G. F., Corpus.
Lott, R. C., Corpus.
Tod, A. H., Trinity.
Tylden, H. J., Exeter.
Upcott, E. A., Balliol.
Walker, E. M., Queen's.

CLASS II.

Ackworth, A. O., Exeter.
Beddoes, W. F., Christ Church.
Blackett-Ord, C. E., Corpus.
Bruce, Hon. W. N., Balliol.
Burns, I. F., Balliol.
Cannaway, A. P., Christ Church.
Conway, F., St. John's.
Cracroft, R. W., Hertford College.
Golland, C. E., Trinity.
Gower, G. G. Leveson, Balliol.
Horsley, R. P., New College.
Lainé, J. M., Exeter.
Lea, T. S., Hertford College.
Macleod, H. C. C., Balliol.
Osler, R. S., Lincoln.
Pattenden, F. W. W., New College.
Peacock, M. H., Exeter.
Powell, T. E., Oriel.
Powles, A. H., Exeter.
Price, A. C., Pembroke.
Roberts, A. T., Magdalen.
Sargeaunt, J., University.
Wilson, B. R., Keble.
Young, J. K., Corpus.

CLASS III.

Abraham, C. T., Keble.
Armitage, R., Magdalen.
Arnold, E. A., Hertford College.
Bond, R. W., Queen's.
Brown, W. G., Lincoln.
Bull, E. T., Pembroke.

Campbell, A. M'N., Brasenose.
Carter, W., Keble.
Cunliffe, R. E., Corpus.
Darling, A. M., Oriel.
Dobinson, W., Wadham.
Druitt, M. J., New College.
Glover, P. C., Worcester.
Haddon, T. W., University.
Hay, W. B., Christ Church.
Hayes, A., New College.
Hobson, J. A., Lincoln.
Johnson, H., St. John's.
Jones, E. O., Merton.
Jones, H. R. M., Jesus.
Kite, J. B., Keble.
Lush, P. J. F., Christ Church.
Macdonell, A. A., Corpus.
Mackenzie, R. J., Keble.
Marsh, W., Hertford College.
Martelli, F., Keble.
Matheson, H. F., Christ Church.
Moore, W. E., Queen's.
Muir, W., Balliol.
Osmaston, F. P. B., University.
Paton, W. R., University.
Pughe, F. H., All Souls.
Rose, H. E., Keble.
Sheldon, W. R., Lincoln.
Shoobridge, L. K. H., Balliol.
Tatham, E. H. R., Brasenose.
Tombs, J. S. O., Merton.
Vincent, J. E., Christ Church.
Voigt, F. H., Worcester.
Weatherly, H. W. M., Brasenose.

CLASS IV.

Barry, E. S., St. John's.
Bickersteth, S., St. John's.
Bradley, W., Queen's.
Clayfield-Ireland, D., New College.
Hogg, J. E., Lincoln.
James, J. E., Worcester.
Lowth, A. C., Keble.
Meates, T. A., University.
Smith, W. G., Worcester.
Turner, G. E., New College.

Mathematics.

CLASS I.

Batho, R. W., Queen's.
Holme, A. E., Wadham.
Pinkerton, R. H., Balliol.
Walker, J., Christ Church.
Watkins, F. W., Corpus Christi.

CLASS II.

Prescott, C. J., Worcester.
Stonham, F., Worcester.

CLASS III.

None.

CLASS IV.

None.

MICHAELMAS TERM.

Literæ Humaniores.

CLASS I.

Margoliouth, D. S., New College.
Moore, A. P., Wadham.

CLASS II.

French, A. H. L., Merton.
Modlen, W., Wadham.
Paul, F. W., Wadham.
Rodd, J. R., Balliol.
Windus, R. J., Worcester.

CLASS III.

Billson, C. J., Corpus Christi.
Buckland, W. H., Corpus Christi.
Evans, E. F., Corpus Christi.
Guthrie, L. G., Magdalen.
Hodgson, C. H., Hertford College.
Odell, F. J., St. John's.
Whitehead, C. J., Exeter.
Winton, L. H., Lincoln.

CLASS IV.

Jellicoe, F. G. G., New College.
Rosedale, W. E., New College.

Mathematics.

CLASS I.

Buchheim, A., New.
Downes, A. M., Christ Church.

CLASS II.

Budden, E., New.
Geden, A. S., Magdalen.

Graham, W. W., New.
Thomas, H. D., St. John's.

CLASS III.

Disney, H. W., Hertford.
Duckworth, R. F., Magdalen.

CLASS IV.

Jeffreys, W. H., Queen's.

Final Honour School of Natural Science.

CLASS I.

Broadbent, G., Magdalen.
Garrod, A. E., Christ Church.
Heaton, W. H., Brasenose.
Jones, J. V., Balliol.
Sells, V. P., New College.

CLASS II.

Beddard, F. E., New College.
Gerrans, H. T., Christ Church.
Hands, T., Queen's.
Jelly, J. O., Magdalen.
Stevens, J. W. G., Christ Church.

Von Buch, C. T., Christ Church.
Woolcombe, W. W., Trinity.

CLASS III.

Greswell, G., Christ Church.
Jackson, A. M., Queen's.
Jones, C. G. G., Christ Church.
Scattergood, O., Queen's.
Scott, W. D., Balliol.
Smith, F. J., Balliol.
Stavert, W. J., New College.

CLASS IV.

Davies, C. D. P., Pembroke.

Final Honour School of Jurisprudence.

CLASS I.

Bowyer, W. P., Trinity.
Farrer, R. R., Balliol.
Napier, W. J., Corpus Christi.
Wise, B. R., Queen's.

CLASS II.

Barnes, G. S., University.
Brierley, — University.
Burch, H. R., Exeter.
Byron, G. A., Christ Church.
Harris, H. P., Christ Church.
Hodgkinson, W. M., Exeter.
How, C. W., Trinity.
Malden, C. S., Trinity.
Malleon, M. D., Corpus Christi.
Richmond, T. H., Christ Church.
Skottowe, B. C., New College.

CLASS III.

Anson, A., Balliol.
Bond, F., Brasenose.
Dampier, L., Trinity.
Empson, W., Trinity.
Ferard, A. G., University.
Hirst, E. T., Balliol.
Johnson, D. L., Worcester.
Thring, C. B., New College.

CLASS IV.

Allbutt, H., New College.
Bird, E. S., Balliol.
Calvert, H., New College.
De Zoete, C. S., Merton.
Phillips, C., Exeter.
Pontifex, R. D., Magdalen.
Rawnsley, W. H., Merton.
Simpson, A. P., Brasenose.
Taliacarne, A. J. B., Trinity.
Whitlock, A. L., Christ Church.

UNIVERSITY DISTINCTIONS.

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Final School of Modern History.

CLASS I.

Earl, H. L., Wadham.
Fletcher, C. R. L., Magdalen.
Lippitt, A. J. W., New College.
Loehnis, H. W., Trinity.
Prothero, M. E. du S., University.
Sanders, Ll. C., Christ Church.
Wells, J., Queen's.

CLASS II.

Baines, F. S., University.
Caiger, W. S., St. John's.
Cathcart, J. T. Christ Church.
Charteris, Hon. H. R., Balliol.
Childs, G. B., Magdalen.
Dakyns, G. D., Magdalen.
Farrer, A. R., New College.
Fielden, H. St. C., Corpus Christi.
Grant-Dalton, C., Trinity.
Hay, A. T., Queen's.
Langton, F. W., Merton.
Lascelles, A. G., University.
Mills, B. R. V., Christ Church.
Powley, R., Queen's.
Reynolds, H. R., New College.
Rubie, J. F., New College.
Stephens, H., Keble.
Taylor, C., Christ Church.
Warren, J. F., Keble.

CLASS III.

Carpenter, R. G., Exeter.
Christie, C. H. F., Exeter.
Escott, E. B. S., Balliol.
Heard, M., Corpus Christi.
Hill, R. M., New College.
Hume, H. S., Exeter.
James, C. W., Exeter.
Miles, A. R., Queen's.
Robinson, F. G. J., University.
Rowe, G. D., University.
Smith-Masters, J. E. C., Keble.
Tunstall, H. K., Trinity.
Wade, S., Balliol.
Walker, H., Merton.

CLASS IV.

Bardsley, F. W., Queen's.
Coker, J. G., New College.
Commeline, A. S., Magdalen.
Cruttwell, W. H. G., St. John's.
Hampson, G. F., Exeter.
Martyn, G. H., Exeter.
Oliver, W. A. W., St. Mary Hall.
Peddie, J. D., Trinity.
Penny, F. P., All Souls'.
Sheffield, W. J., New College.

Final School of Theology.

CLASS I.

None.

CLASS II.

Brightman, F. E., University.
Brooke, W., St. John's.
Corrance, H. C., Christ Church.
Richardson, P. J., St. John's.
Southwell, H. B., Pembroke.
Thompson, R. P., St. John's.

CLASS III.

Cornish, C. W., New College.

Draper, W. H., Keble.
Hay, M. W., New College.
Hunt, C. W., Corpus Christi.
Loughnan, A. S., Pembroke.
Michell, J. C., New College.
Murton, G., Pembroke.
Rees, J. H., Jesus.
Sainte Croix, H. de, St. Mary Hall.
Sim, S., Trinity.
Snell, F. L., Jesus.
Taylor, J. K., Pembroke.
Williams, C. D., Christ Church.

MICHAELMAS TERM, 1880.

Final Honour School of Natural Science.

CLASS I.

Edgell, R. A., University.
Walker, A., Trinity.

CLASS II.

Forster, W., Keble.
Thorpe, J. C., Corpus Christi.
Whittaker, T., Exeter.

CLASS III.

Crowdy, F. D., Oriel.
Owen, A. E. B., Oriel.

CLASS IV.

None.

R

UNIVERSITY DISTINCTIONS.

Final Honour School of Jurisprudence.

CLASS I.

Johnson, G. S. M., Keble.
Williams, H. R., Keble.

CLASS II.

Bazett, H., Worcester.
Berger, E. M., Oriel.
Martin, T. A., Balliol.
Springmann, P., Balliol.

CLASS III.

Capron, F. A., University.
Cash, J. O., St. John's.

Cuming, C. G., Trinity.
Fletcher, J. D., Balliol.
Hill, E. F., New.
Ogilvie, G. S., University.
Smith, E. M., New.
Taylor, L. W., Oriel.

CLASS IV.

Ash, E., Magdalen.
Cheshyre-Walker, R. E., University.
Holgate, C. W., Brasenose.
Troutbeck, J., Queen's.
Wood, M. C., St. John's.

Final School of Modern History.

CLASS I.

Hardinge, A. H., Balliol.
Stephens, H. M., Balliol.

CLASS II.

Burrows, L. H., New.
Cornwall, A. W., University.
Grant, J. P., Trinity.
Keep, A. P., University.
May, F. G., New.
Mulholland, H. L., Balliol.
Mushet, R. S., New.
Richmond, T. H., Christ Church.

CLASS III.

Clarke-Thornhill, T. B., Merton.
Colebrooke, E. L., Exeter.

Coode, A., University.
Cook, P. S., Queen's.
Daughlish, G. H., University.
Greaves, T., Worcester.
Kingston, J. R. W., St. Alban's Hall.
Macnamara, C. C., Oriel.
Neve, C., Exeter.
Oakes, J., Trinity.
Walker, G. G., Worcester.

CLASS IV.

Bell, J. S., Queen's.
Cochrane-Baillie, Hon. C. W. A. N.,
Christ Church.
Joy, P., Trinity.
Lowe, H. W., Lincoln.
Wood, W. P., Exeter.

Final School of Theology.

CLASS I.

None.

CLASS II.

Spurrell, G. J., Balliol.
Thompson, W. R., Merton.

CLASS III.

Bonus, A., Pembroke.
Buckland, A. R., Pembroke.
Carter, B. T. S., New.

Chettoe, S. E., St. Edmund Hall.
Coen, J. C., Balliol.
Giblin, J. M., St. Edmund Hall.
Griffiths, B. P., St. John's.
Lewis, J. P., New.
Reeve, E. H. L., Oriel.
Wynne-Foulkes, P. J. B., Keble.

CLASS IV.

Cannon, H. J., St. Edmund Hall.
Minty, F. A., St. Edmund Hall.
Thatcher, W. R., Exeter.

IRELAND SCHOLAR.

Mackail, J. W., Balliol (Exhibitioner).

HERTFORD SCHOLAR.

Mackail, J. W., Balliol (Exhibitioner).

Proximo Accessit.

Cookson, C., Corpus (scholar in his first year).

SENIOR MATHEMATICAL SCHOLARSHIP.

Bowman, J. C., Corpus (Scholar).

JUNIOR MATHEMATICAL SCHOLARSHIP.

Sampson, C. H., Balliol (Scholar).

CRAVEN SCHOLARS.

Godley, A. D., B.A., Balliol.
Scott, W., B.A., Merton.

UNIVERSITY DISTINCTIONS.

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RADCLIFFE TRAVELLING FELLOW.
Jones, W. W., Magdalen.

TRAVELLING STUDENT IN ARCHÆO-
LOGY.

Ramsay, W. M., St. John's.

BODEN SANSKRIT SCHOLAR.

Portgate, J., Queen's (Exhibitioner)

Proxime Accessit.

Payne, C. W., Christ Church (Ju-
nior Student).

NEWDIGATE PRIZE POEM.

"Sir Walter Raleigh."

Rodd, J. R., Balliol.

KENNICOTT HEBREW SCHOLAR.

Giles, W. L., B.A., St. John's.

PUSEY AND ELLERTON HEBREW
SCHOLAR.

Spurrell, G. J., Balliol.

CHANCELLOR'S PRIZES.

LATIN ESSAY.

Scott, W., B.A., Merton.

ENGLISH ESSAY.

Dalton, F. T., B.A., Corpus Christi.

LATIN VERSE.

Owen, S. G., Balliol.

June 10. Honorary Degree of Doctor
of Civil Law conferred on Lord Aber-

dare; Professor Fawcett, M.P.; Sir
R. Temple; Sir A. Grant (Edinburgh);
Admiral Sir A. Cooper Key, K.C.B.;
Professor Sylvester (Baltimore); Pro-
fessor Lister; J. E. Millais, R.A.

October 14. Dr. Bradley, Master of
University, appointed to be member of
the Oxford Commission in the place of
Lord Selborne.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE BOATS.

Order of starting.	Final.
May 5th.	May 11th.
1 Balliol.	1 Magdalen.
2 Magdalen.	2 Brasenose.
3 University.	3 University.
4 Pembroke.	4 New College.
5 Brasenose.	5 Hertford.
6 New College.	6 Exeter.
7 Christ Church.	7 Balliol.
8 Hertford.	8 Trinity.
9 Keble.	9 Pembroke.
10 Exeter.	10 St. John's.
11 Trinity.	11 Corpus.
12 Corpus.	12 Worcester.
13 St. John's.	13 Christ Church.
14 Worcester.	14 St. Mary Hall.
15 Queen's.	15 Keble.
16 St. Mary Hall.	16 Lincoln.
17 Oriel.	17 Queen's.
18 Lincoln.	18 Oriel.
19 Merton.	19 St. Catharine's.
20 St. Catharine's	20 Jesus.
(unattached).	
21 Jesus.	21 Merton.
22 St. Edmund	22 St. Edmund
Hall.	Hall.
Wadham, no boat.	

CAMBRIDGE.

MATHEMATICAL TRIPOS.

WRANGLERS.

1 Larmor, St. John's.	{ Long, St. John's.
2 Thomson, Trinity.	{ Tuck, King's.
3 Allcock, Emmanuel.	20 Crosskey, Trinity Hall.
4 Cox, Trinity.	{ Olley, St. Peter's.
5 Mackenzie, Emmanuel.	{ Somerville, Trinity.
6 M'Intosh, Queen's.	23 Woodcock, Christ's.
7 Welsford, Caius.	{ Hawthorn, Pembroke.
8 Johnson, Trinity.	{ Willis, Downing.
9 Maclean, King's.	26 Dove, Christ's.
{ Harrison, King's.	{ Barber, Caius.
{ Watt, Jesus.	{ John's, Queen's.
12 Whitfeld, Trinity.	29 Tyrer, St. Catharine's.
13 Vaughan, Christ's.	30 Senior, St. Catharine's.
{ Goggs, Christ's.	{ Adams, St. John's.
{ Haigh, Christ's.	{ Noaks, Emmanuel.
{ Daldy, Pembroke.	33 Wrigley, St. John's.
{ Whitby, Christ's.	

R 2

SENIOR OPTIMES.

Ds	Morton, St. John's.				Scott, King's.
35	Whitaker, Trinity.				Stone, J. M., St. John's.
36	Searle, St. Catharine's.				Torr, Trinity.
37	Adamson, Emmanuel.				Young, Corpus Christi.
	Bagott, Queen's.				Chevallier, King's.
	Bennett, Sidney.				Marshall, Trinity.
	Blaine, Trinity.				Schacht, Trinity.
	De Hart, Christ's.				Thomas, Caius.
	Fuller, St. Peter's.			59	Raven, Sidney Sussex.
	Hollis, Jesus.				Richmond, Magdalene.
	Temperley, Queen's.				Shervill, St. Peter's.
45	Carr, Caius.				Baker, Clare.
	Hughes, Sidney Sussex.				Jones, Emmanuel.
	Lowndes, Christ's.				Buckton, Clare.
48	Stone, T., St. John's.				Campbell, Clare.
	Mosley, Christ's.				Cobbold, Caius.
	Smedley, Queen's.				

JUNIOR OPTIMES.

Di	Dale, St. John's.				Gooden, Trinity.
	King, King's.				Sewart, St. John's.
	Sugden, Trinity Hall.			85	Croft, King's.
	Haviland, St. John's.			86	Clarke, Trinity.
	Newall, Trinity.			87	Clarke, St. John's.
72	Planck, St. Peter's.			88	Jeffcock, Jesus.
73	Swiny, St. John's.				Browning, King's.
74	King, Trinity.				Hitchcock.
75	Hardinge, Hon. C., Trinity,			91	Newton, Trinity.
76	Relton, Queen's.			92	George, St. John's.
	Dawbarn, Queen's.			93	Ward, Trinity.
	Jones, St. John's.			94	M'Ewen, Trinity.
	Montford, Pembroke.				Currie, Caius.
	Rogers, Clare.				Wood, Trinity.
	Winter, Corpus Christi.			97	Green, Christ's.
82	Pulling, Trinity.			98	Raban, Caius.
				99	Coates, Trinity.

Ægrotant—Bennion, Corpus Christi; Gunnery, St. John's; Murphy, Christ's.

Mr. Joseph Larmor, St. John's, aged twenty-two, is the eldest son of the late Hugh Larmor, of Belfast, was educated at the Royal Academical Institution, Belfast, whence he entered Queen's College, Belfast, in 1871. In 1873 he obtained the Porter Scholarship for general proficiency, and in 1874 the Dunville Studentship in Science at the Queen's University; at B.A. in 1874 and also at M.A. in 1875 he obtained a double First in Mathematical Science and Experimental Science, receiving two gold medals and Exhibitions on each occasion; and his answering being specially commended to the Senate in both subjects. At London University he took second place at Matriculation in 1876, and was successively 'Neil Arnott' Exhibitioner and Medallist in Experimental Physics at first B.Sc. Examination, and University scholar in Mathematics at B.Sc. He entered at St. John's in 1876, with First Minor Scholarship, and obtained a Foundation Scholarship in 1878. He has been Wright's Prizeman in each year of residence, and also Hughes' Prizeman in 1879. College tutor, Mr. Sandys; private tutor, Mr. Routh.

Bell Scholars.—1. W. R. Inge, King's; 2. E. A. Welch, King's.

Abbot's Scholar.—B. L. Edwards, Trinity.

Craven Scholar.—J. C. Moss, St. John's.

Browne Scholar.—W. Wyse, Trinity.

Chancellor's Medals, Classical.—G. M. Edwards, Trinity; R. St. J. Parry, Trinity.

Smith's Prizemen.—J. Larmor, Senior Wrangler; J. J. Thomson, Second Wrangler.

CLASSICAL TRIPOS.

FIRST CLASS.

Perry, King's.	{ Bird, Trinity.
Parry, Trinity.	{ Smith, King's.
Edwards, Trinity.	{ Tanner, Pembroke.
Colson, St. John's.	{ Hubbersty, St. Catharine's.
{ Chance, Trinity.	{ Gibb, Trinity.
{ Parker, King's.	{ Haines, St. Catharine's.
{ Ridgeway, Caius.	{ Hodson, Magdalen.
{ Turner, Jesus.	{ Sutcliffe, St. John's.
{ Robinson, Trinity.	{ Lafone, Trinity.
	{ Pain, Christ's.

SECOND CLASS.

{ Jones, Trinity.	{ Jackson, Trinity.
{ Stocks, Pembroke.	{ Spence, Trinity.
{ Prichard, Magdalen.	{ Williams, Sidney Sussex.
{ Doran, Christ's.	{ Prest, Jesus.
{ Rix, Queen's.	{ Williams, A., St. John's.
{ Winslow, Caius.	{ Hughes, Magdalen.
{ Bury, Trinity.	{ Sandys, St. John's.
{ Harrison, St. John's.	{ Schneider, Caius.
{ Pennyman, Trinity.	

THIRD CLASS.

{ Johnson, G. W., Trinity.	{ Hunter, Jesus.
{ Jones-Bateman, Clare.	{ Kirkpatrick, Trinity.
{ Letts, Jesus.	{ Mulliner, Clare.
{ Cann, Clare.	{ Guillebaud, Trinity.
{ Lawrence, King's.	{ Harper, St. John's.
{ Pares, Trinity.	{ Ponsonby, Trinity.
{ Smyth, King's.	{ Isard, Trinity.
{ Taylor, St. John's.	{ Pearson, Emmanuel.
{ Whitelock, Trinity.	{ Wilkinson, Jesus.
{ Foley, King's.	{ Rowbottom, Corpus Christi.
{ Johnson, H., Trinity.	{ Wickham, Trinity.
{ Macpherson, Trinity.	{ Heygate, King's.
{ Stable, Emmanuel.	{ Hudson, Corpus Christi.
{ Gayer, Emmanuel.	{ La Brooy, Corpus Christi.
{ Johnstone, Jesus.	{ Ilderton, St. Peter's.
{ Rumsey, Trinity Hall.	{ Don, Trinity.
{ Newton, Clare.	{ Bradshaw, Corpus Christi.
{ Bull, Trinity.	{ Puttock, Jesus.
{ Blake, Sidney Sussex.	{ Torr, Trinity.
	{ Brookes, Christ's.

Ægotant—Moore, St. Catharine's; Novelli, Trinity; and Tracy, St. John's.

Mr. Edwin Cooper Perry, the Senior Classic, is a son of the Rev. Edwin Cresswell Perry, vicar of Sleighford, Staffordshire, and was educated at Eton. He was elected to an Eton scholarship at King's College in 1876. In the following year he was honourably mentioned by the examiner for the Porson University Scholarship. He obtained the Bell University Scholarship in 1877, the Browne University Scholarship in 1878, and the Pitt University Scholarship in 1879. He also carried off Sir William Browne's Medal for a Greek epigram in 1878.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE BOATS, 1880.

First Division.

Order of starting.	Final.	Order of starting.	Final.
Jesus I.	Jesus I.	1 Trinity II.	Clare I.
Lady Margaret I.	Caius I.	Lady Margaret II.	Pembroke I.
Caius I.	1 Trinity I.	Pembroke I.	1 Trinity III.
1 Trinity I.	Trinity Hall I.	Emmanuel I.	Emmanuel I.
3 Trinity I.	Lady Margaret I.	1 Trinity III.	3 Trinity II.
Trinity Hall I.	3 Trinity I.	Sidney, Sussex, I.	Lady Margaret
Caius II.	1 Trinity II.	Jesus II.	Sidney Sussex I.
Clare I.	Caius II.	3 Trinity II.	Jesus II.

CIVIL LIST.

Detailed Statement of the Amount Issued from the Exchequer in the Year ended March 31, 1880, for Payment on account of the Civil List.

Civil List Charges, as per Schedule to the Act 1 Vict. c. 2 :—		£	s.	d.
Class I.	Her Majesty's Privy Purse	60,000	0	0
"	II. Salaries of Her Majesty's Household	131,260	0	0
"	III. Expenses of Her Majesty's Household	172,500	0	0
"	IV. Royal Bounty, Alms, and Special Services	13,200	0	0
"	VI. Unappropriated	8,040	0	0
		385,000	0	0
"	V. Pensions granted under the above Act (limited to 1,200 <i>l.</i> per annum)	22,467	10	5
Total amount issued on account of the Civil List		£407,467	10	5

ANNUITIES AND PENSIONS.

ANNUITIES TO THE ROYAL FAMILY : *—		£	s.	d.
	Her Royal Highness the Princess Royal (Crown Princess of Prussia)	8,000	0	0
	His Royal Highness Albert Edward, Prince of Wales	40,000	0	0
	Her Royal Highness the Princess of Wales	10,000	0	0
	His Royal Highness Alfred Ernest Albert, Duke of Edinburgh	25,000	0	0
	Her Royal Highness Helena Augusta Victoria (Princess Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderbourg-Augustenburg)	6,000	0	0
	Her Royal Highness Louise Caroline Alberta, Princess, Marchioness of Lorne	6,000	0	0
	His Royal Highness Arthur William Patrick Albert, Duke of Connaught and Strathearn	15,000	0	0
	His Royal Highness Prince Leopold George Duncan Albert	†8,166	13	4
	Her Royal Highness the Duchess of Cambridge	15,000	0	0
	Her Royal Highness the Duchess of Cambridge	6,000	0	0
	Her Royal Highness the Princess Augusta, Duchess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz	3,000	0	0
	His Royal Highness the Duke of Cambridge	12,000	0	0
	Her Royal Highness the Princess Mary (Princess of Teck)	5,000	0	0
		£159,166	13	4

PENSIONS FOR NAVAL AND MILITARY SERVICES : *—		£	s.	d.
	Duke of Marlborough	4,000	0	0
	Lord Rodney	1,000	0	0
	Sarah, Lady Rodney	1,000	0	0
	Earl Morley, in trust for Earl Amherst	3,000	0	0
	Viscount St. Vincent, died July 19, 1879	1,608	4	11
	Earl Nelson	5,000	0	0
	The Duke of Wellington	4,000	0	0
	Viscount Combermere	2,000	0	0
	Viscount Exmouth, Guardians of	2,000	0	0
	Lord Seaton	2,000	0	0
	Lord Keane	2,000	0	0
	Viscount Hardinge	3,000	0	0
	Viscount Gough	2,000	0	0
	Lord Raglan	2,000	0	0
	Lady Raglan	1,000	0	0
	Sir William F. Williams, Bart.	1,000	0	0
	Sir Henry Marshman Havelock-Allan, Bart.	1,000	0	0
	Dowager Lady Havelock	1,000	0	0
	Lord Napier of Magdala	2,000	0	0
		£40,608	4	11

* Some of these Annuitants receive emoluments from the amounts voted for the forces.

† From March 13, 1879, at 10,000*l.* a year.

PENSIONS FOR POLITICAL AND CIVIL SERVICES;—			£	s.	d.
Viscount Eversley, late Speaker of the House of Commons			4,000	0	0
Countess of Elgin and Kincardine			1,000	0	0
Countess of Mayo			1,000	0	0
<i>First Class :—</i>					
The Right Hon. Sir George Grey			2,000	0	0
The Right Hon. The Earl of Beaconsfield (suspended)			—		
The Right Hon. Thomas Milner Gibson			2,000	0	0
The Right Hon. Spencer H. Walpole			2,000	0	0
<i>Second Class (under Act of 1869):—</i>					
The Right Hon. Charles P. Villiers*			1,200	0	0
Glasse, William B., Officer of the late Exchequer in England			108	0	0
Maberly, William L.,† late Commissioner of Audit			1,200	0	0
Macaulay, Charles Z.			1,200	0	0
<i>Third Class :—</i>					
Vice-Admiral Lord Clarence E. Paget			1,200	0	0
<i>Fourth Class :—</i>					
Admiral W. A. B. Hamilton			1,000	0	0
W. G. Romaine, C.B., late Second Secretary of the Admiralty			1,000	0	0
			£18,908	0	0
Pensions for Civil Services (Ireland)			£87	6	0
Pensions for Judicial Services (Great Britain)			£46,666	7	7
Pensions for Judicial Services (Ireland)			£12,293	9	0
Late Chairmen of Quarter Sessions			£8,210	4	6
Pensions for Diplomatic Services ‡			£12,213	16	8
HEREDITARY PENSIONS :—			£	s.	d.
The Heirs of the Duke of Schomberg §			984	0	0
The Earl of Bath (moiety)			1,200	0	0
The Heirs and Descendants of William Penn (for ever)			4,000	0	0
The Earl of Kinnoul (<i>see below</i>).					
			£6,184	0	0
MISCELLANEOUS PENSIONS :—			£	s.	d.
The servants of her late Majesty Queen Charlotte			170	12	8
The servants of his late Majesty George the Third			10	0	0
Pensions formerly on the Civil List of their late Majesties George the Fourth and William the Fourth			8,849	4	7
			£9,029	17	3
MISCELLANEOUS PENSIONS (IRELAND) :—			£	s.	d.
Persons who suffered by the Rebellion in Ireland, in 1798			32	6	4
Pensions formerly on the Civil List, Ireland			1,159	10	0
			£1,191	16	4
Total Amount issued for Annuities and Pensions			£314,559	15	7

* In addition to a superannuation allowance of 750*l.* a year as Examiner, Court of Chancery, borne on Vote for Superannuations, Class VI., Vote 1, p. 430.

† In addition to a Superannuation Allowance of 533*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* per annum, as late Secretary to the Post Office.

‡ By Act 32 & 33 Vict. c. 43, the Salaries and Allowances of the Diplomatic Service were transferred from the Consolidated Fund to the annual Civil Service Estimates from April 1869; and all pensions subsequently granted are similarly provided for. The pensions included above are, therefore, those which were granted prior to April 1869.

§ One moiety of this pension, viz. 1,080*l.*, payable to the Duke of Leeds, was commuted in 1876; and 96*l.* per annum of the remaining moiety was commuted in 1877.

THE REVENUE.

I.

FINANCIAL YEAR 1879-80.

An abstract of the Gross Produce of the Revenue of the United Kingdom in the undermentioned periods, ended March 31, 1880, compared with the corresponding periods of the preceding year.

	QUARTERS ENDED			
	June 30, 1879.	Sept. 30, 1879.	Dec. 31, 1879.	March 31, 1880.
	£	£	£	£
Customs	4,627,000	4,488,000	5,356,000	4,855,000
Excise	6,250,000	5,240,000	6,460,000	7,350,000
Stamps	2,915,000	2,530,000	2,725,000	3,130,000
Land Tax and House Duty	480,000	105,000	26,000	2,059,000
Property and Income Tax	1,565,000	664,000	486,000	6,515,000
Post Office	1,645,000	1,500,000	1,630,000	1,575,000
Telegraph Service	340,000	370,000	365,000	345,000
Crown Lands	80,000	80,000	135,000	95,000
Interest on Advances	322,807	272,869	325,520	333,400
Miscellaneous	697,243	1,358,353	1,108,037	860,826
Totals	18,922,050	16,608,222	18,616,557	27,118,226

	QUARTERS ENDED			
	June 30, 1878.	Sept. 30, 1878.	Dec. 31, 1878.	March 31, 1879.
	£	£	£	£
Customs	4,927,000	4,626,000	5,484,000	5,279,000
Excise	6,575,000	5,508,000	6,990,000	8,327,000
Stamps	2,661,000	2,532,000	2,628,000	2,849,000
Land Tax and House Duty	546,000	115,000	26,000	2,033,000
Property and Income Tax	934,000	566,000	440,000	6,770,000
Post Office	1,629,000	1,513,000	1,554,000	1,544,000
Telegraph Service	340,000	370,000	325,000	500,000
Crown Lands	83,000	82,000	141,000	104,000
Interests on Advances	296,833	206,189	383,151	205,578
Miscellaneous	825,862	1,190,338	1,048,411	1,108,610
Totals	18,817,695	16,708,527	19,069,562	28,520,188

	Year ended March 31, 1880.	Year ended March 31, 1879.
	£	£
Customs	19,326,000	20,316,000
Excise	25,300,000	27,400,000
Stamps	11,300,000	10,670,000
Land Tax and House Duty	2,670,000	2,720,000
Property and Income Tax	9,230,000	8,710,000
Post Office	6,350,000	6,240,000
Telegraph Service	1,420,000	1,385,000
Crown Lands	390,000	410,000
Interest on Advances	1,254,596	1,091,751
Miscellaneous	4,024,459	4,228,321
Totals	81,265,055	83,115,972

THE REVENUE.

II.

CALENDAR YEAR 1880.

An Abstract of the Gross Produce of the Revenue of the United Kingdom in the undermentioned periods, ended December 31, 1880, compared with the corresponding periods of the preceding year.

—	QUARTERS ENDED			
	March 31, 1880.	June 30, 1880.	Sept. 30, 1880.	Dec. 31, 1880.
	£	£	£	£
Customs	4,855,000	4,481,000	4,556,000	5,376,000
Excise	7,350,000	6,290,000	5,430,000	6,700,000
Stamps	3,130,000	2,915,000	2,815,000	3,105,000
Land Tax and House Duty . .	2,059,000	500,000	125,000	35,000
Property and Income Tax . .	6,515,000	1,620,000	700,000	660,000
Post Office	1,575,000	1,748,000	1,570,000	1,677,000
Telegraph Service	345,000	410,000	420,000	395,000
Crown Lands	95,000	80,000	80,000	135,000
Interest on Advances	333,400	362,751	237,102	403,666
Miscellaneous	860,826	1,212,307	1,080,340	1,052,998
Totals	27,118,226	19,619,058	17,013,442	19,539,664

—	QUARTERS ENDED			
	March 31, 1879.	June 30, 1879.	Sept. 30, 1879.	Dec. 31, 1879.
	£	£	£	£
Customs	5,279,000	4,627,000	4,488,000	5,356,000
Excise	8,327,000	6,250,000	5,240,000	6,460,000
Stamps	2,849,000	2,915,000	2,530,000	2,725,000
Land Tax and House Duty . .	2,033,000	480,000	105,000	26,000
Property and Income Tax . .	6,770,000	1,565,000	664,000	486,000
Post Office	1,544,000	1,645,000	1,500,000	1,630,000
Telegraph Service	300,000	340,000	370,000	365,000
Crown Lands	104,000	80,000	80,000	135,000
Interest on Advances	205,578	322,807	272,869	325,520
Miscellaneous	1,108,610	697,243	1,358,353	1,108,037
Totals	28,520,188	18,922,050	16,608,222	18,616,557

—	Year ended Dec. 31, 1880.	Year ended Dec. 31, 1879.
	£	£
Customs	19,268,000	19,750,000
Excise	25,770,000	26,277,000
Stamps	11,965,000	11,019,000
Land Tax and House Duty . .	2,719,000	2,644,000
Property and Income Tax . .	9,495,000	9,485,000
Post Office	6,570,000	6,319,000
Telegraph Service	1,570,000	1,375,000
Crown Lands	390,000	399,000
Interest on Advances	1,336,919	1,126,774
Miscellaneous	4,206,471	4,272,243
Totals	83,290,390	82,667,017

PUBLIC INCOME AND EXPENDITURE, AND OTHER

Receipts	Amounts			
	£	s.	d.	£ s. d.
Balance in the Exchequer on April 1, 1879 :				
At the Bank of England . . .	5,964,817	16	9	
At the Bank of Ireland . . .	950,937	14	11	
				6,915,755 11 8
REVENUE RECEIVED INTO THE EX-CHEQUER, viz. :				
Customs	19,326,000	0	0	
Excise	25,300,000	0	0	
Stamps	11,300,000	0	0	
Land Tax and House Duty . . .	2,670,000	0	0	
Property and Income Tax . . .	9,230,000	0	0	
Post Office	6,350,000	0	0	
Telegraph Service	1,420,000	0	0	
Crown Lands (Net)	390,000	0	0	
Interest on Advances for Local Works, &c., and on Purchase Money of Suez Canal Shares . .	1,254,596	2	2	
Miscellaneous	4,024,459	10	0	
Total Income				81,265,055 12 2
Carried forward				88,180,811 8 10

EXCHEQUER RECEIPTS AND ISSUES, IN 1879-80.

Issues.	Amounts.			
	£	s.	d.	£ s. d.
PERMANENT CHARGE OF DEBT:				
Interest (except as below) and Management of the Debt . . .	21,504,330	10	3	
Terminable Annuities	5,717,471	9	0	
	27,221,801	19	3	
Interest of Exchequer Bills, &c. . .	127,134	4	10	
New Sinking Fund	651,063	15	11	28,000,000 0 0
INTEREST, &c., NOT FORMING PART OF THE ABOVE PERMANENT CHARGE, VIZ.:				
Interest on loans for Local Purposes	341,804	16	3	
Interest on Supply Exchequer Bonds	190,375	0	0	
Interest and Principal of Exchequer Bonds (Suez)	199,955	5	0	
Interest on Stock Created for Loan to India	30,738	17	9	762,873 19 0
OTHER CHARGES ON CONSOLIDATED FUND:				28,762,873 19 0
Civil List	407,467	10	5	
Annuities and Pensions	314,559	15	7	
Salaries and Allowances	93,889	9	0	
Courts of Justice	624,179	15	10	
Miscellaneous Services (Ordinary). .	158,447	2	1	1,598,543 12 11
VOTED SUPPLY SERVICES, VIZ.:				
Army Services (Including Army Purchase)	15,645,866	15	1	
Army Services Charges on Account of Troops in India	1,115,050	3	3	
Navy Services	10,416,131	17	7	
VOTES OF CREDIT:				
War in South Africa	2,772,720	1	8	
Griqualand, West	222,200	0	0	
Sikukuni Expedition	250,000	0	0	
	3,244,920	1	8	
Abyssinian Expedition	633	19	2	
	30,422,602	16	9	
Miscellaneous Civil Services . . .	15,324,596	3	5	
Customs and Inland Revenue Departments	2,784,316	16	2	
Post Office	3,333,000	0	0	
Telegraph Service	1,107,000	0	0	
Post Office Packet Service	772,820	0	0	53,744,335 16 4
Total Ordinary Expenditure }				84,105,753 8 3
Carried forward				

Receipts		Amounts			
		£	s.	d.	£ s. d.
Brought forward . . .		—			88,180,811 3 10
OTHER EXCHEQUER RECEIPTS, viz. :—					
REPAYMENT OF ADVANCES CHARGED ON CONSOLIDATED FUND :					
For Purchase of Bullion		520,000	0	0	
For Public Works and Improve- ments, &c.		1,084,592	12	2	1,604,592 12 2
REPAYMENT OF ADVANCES VOTED IN SUPPLY :					
For Greenwich Hospital and School		—			138,874 7 2
MONEY RAISED BY CREATION OF DEBT :					
FUNDED :		£			
2,049,259 <i>l.</i> 5 <i>s.</i> 9 <i>d.</i> , Consols, created for LOAN TO INDIA, per Act 42 & 43 Vict. c. 61		—	2,000,000	0 0	
UNFUNDED :					
Exchequer Bonds for Local Loans		3,750,000			
"Supply Exchequer Bonds, 1879-80" . .		3,200,000			
			6,950,000	0 0	
Exchequer Bills dated March 11, 1880, to replace Bills paid off		—	26,000	0 0	
Treasury Bills per Act 40 Vict. c. 2, to re- place Treasury Bills for Local Loans paid off		—	17,681,000	0 0	26,657,000 0 0
TEMPORARY ADVANCES RECEIVED :					
Advances in aid of Ways and Means (42 & 43 Vict. c. 51)			2,250,000	0 0	
Advances for Deficiency of the Con- solidated Fund (per Act 29 & 30 Vict. c. 39), received as under, viz. :					
In the Quarter ended	Septem- ber 30, 1879	£ 2,300,000			
	Decem- ber 31, 1879	2,750,000			
	March 31, 1880	3,800,000			
			8,850,000	0 0	11,100,000 0 0
					127,681,278 8 2

Issues	Amounts					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Brought forward . . .	—			84,105,753	8	3
EXPENSES of LOCALISATION of the MILITARY FORCES defrayed out of Money raised by Terminal Annuities in 1878-79	—			250,000	0	0
TOTAL EXPENDITURE (in- cluding Localisation of the Military Forces)	—			84,355,753	8	3
OTHER EXCHEQUER ISSUES, viz.:—						
ADVANCES BY WAY OF LOAN CHARGED ON CONSOLIDATED FUND:						
For Purchase of Bullion for Coin- age	670,000	0	0			
For Public Works and Improve- ments, &c.	3,692,000	0	0	4,362,000	0	0
ADVANCES VOTED IN SUPPLY: For Greenwich Hospital and School	—			123,096	0	0
LOAN TO INDIA: Amount issued (raised as per con- tra), for Loan to India, per Act 42 & 43 Vict. c. 45	—			2,000,000	0	0
REDEMPTION OF FUNDED DEBT: Amount issued under— New Sinking Fund	—					
REDEMPTION OF UNFUNDED DEBT:						
Exchequer Bills paid off	26,000	0	0			
Treasury Bills paid off	17,681,000	0	0			
Exchequer Bonds Paid off, viz.: £						
Bonds for Local Loans 1,060,000						
Bonds for Supply 4,700,000						
1878-9 (exclusive of 650,000l. paid off out of New Sinking Fund)	5,760,000	0	0	23,467,000	0	0
TEMPORARY ADVANCES REPAID:						
Advances in aid of Ways and Means repaid out of Growing Produce of Consolidated Fund	1,250,000	0	0			
Advances for Deficiency of Con- solidated Fund, repaid out of ditto	8,850,000	0	0	10,100,000	0	0
BALANCE in the Exchequer on March 31, 1880:						
At the Bank of England	2,532,454	4	4			
At the Bank of Ireland	740,974	10	7	3,273,428	14	11
				127,681,278	3	2

**AN ACCOUNT OF THE STATE OF THE PUBLIC FUNDED
DEBT OF THE UNITED KINGDOM ON MARCH 31, 1880.**

CAPITAL FUNDED DEBT:	Capitals			Annual charge		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
GREAT BRITAIN:						
New Annuities at 2½ per cent.	3,747,874	11	7			
Exchequer Bonds, created per 16 Vict. c. 23	418,300	0	0			
Total, at 2½ per cent.	4,166,174	11	7	104,154	7	3
Debt due to the Bank of England at 3 per cent.	11,015,100	0	0			
Consolidated Annuities	390,896,871	5	3			
Reduced Annuities	92,325,310	2	11			
New Annuities	178,026,577	7	11			
Total, at 3 per cent.	672,263,858	16	1	20,167,915	15	3
New Annuities at 3½ per cent.	225,746	6	4	7,901	2	5
Total, Great Britain	676,655,779	14	0	20,279,971	4	11
IRELAND:						
New Annuities at 2½ per cent.	2,330	0	0	58	5	0
Debt due to the Bank of Ireland at 3 per cent.	2,630,769	4	8			
Consolidated Annuities	4,923,989	19	5			
Reduced Annuities	136,675	3	6			
New Annuities	26,126,815	2	2			
Total, at 3 per cent.	33,818,249	9	9	1,014,547	9	8
Total, Ireland	33,820,579	9	9	1,014,605	14	8
Total Capital of the Funded Debt of the United Kingdom on March 31, 1880, and Charge thereof	710,476,359	3	9	21,294,576	19	7
TERMINABLE ANNUITIES:						
Annuities, per 18 Vict. c. 18, expiring April 5, 1885	—			116,000	0	0
Annuities, per 23 & 24 Vict. c. 109, subsequent Acts, expiring April 5, 1885 (Fortifications) Annuity, per 26 Vict. c. 14, expiring April 5, 1885	—			589,722	0	0
Annuities, per 32 & 33 Vict. c. 59, and 29 Vict. c. 5, expiring at various dates in 1885 (payable yearly)	—			9,983	7	3
Annuities, per 35 & 36 Vict. c. 68, expiring at various dates in 1885 (payable yearly), 'The Military Forces Localisation Act'	—			3,617,845	0	0
Red Sea and India Telegraph Company's Annuity, 25 & 26 Vict. c. 39, expiring August 4, 1908	—			378,831	0	0
Sinking Fund Annuity on New 2½ per cents., per 33 & 34 Vict. c. 71 s. 69	—			36,000	0	0
	—			6,906	14	7

AN ACCOUNT OF THE PUBLIC FUNDED DEBT, ETC.—continued.

	Capitals			Annual charge		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Annuities for Terms of Years, per 10 Geo. 4, c. 24, and 3 Will. 4, c. 14, expiring at various periods, viz.:						
Granted up to March 31, 1880	£	s.	d.			
1,774,789	9	0				
Deduct, expired and unclaimed up to do.	1,745,681	16	6	—	29,107	12 6
Life Annuities, per 10 Geo. 4, c. 24; 3 Will. 4, c. 14; 16 & 17 Vict. c. 45, and 27 & 28 Vict. c. 43, viz.:						
Granted up to March 31, 1880	£	s.	d.			
4,226,992	4	8				
Deduct, expired and unclaimed up to do.	3,280,443	2	0	—	946,549	2 8
Exchequer Tontine Annuities, per 29 Geo. 3. c. 41				—	14,000	0 0
	£	s.	d.			
Management } Great Britain	212,642	16	9		27,089,531	16 7
} Ireland	9,350	1	9	—	221,992	18 6
Total Funded Debt and Charge on March 31, 1880				710,476,359	3 9	27,261,514 15 1
ABSTRACT.						
Total Funded Debt and Charge:						
On March 31, 1880	710,476,359	3 9		27,261,514	15 1	
On March 31, 1879	709,430,593	13 0		27,222,732	9 8	
Increase of Debt, and Increase of Charge } in the Year ended March 31, 1880	1,045,766	10 9		38,782	5 5	

STATE OF THE UNFUNDED DEBT OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

	Treasury Bills	Exchequer Bills	Exchequer Bonds
Amount of the Unfunded Debt on April 1, 1879	£ 5,431,000	£ 5,162,800	£ 15,276,300
Amount issued in the year ended March 31, 1880	17,681,000	26,000	6,950,000
	23,112,000	5,188,800	22,226,300
Amount paid off in the year ended March 31, 1880	17,681,000	26,000	6,475,300
	5,431,000	5,162,800	15,751,000
		26,344,900	
Ways and Means not repaid on March 31, 1880		1,000,000	
Total amount of Unfunded Debt on March 31, 1880		27,344,900	

LOANS GUARANTEED BY

—	Amount of Loan	Purpose for which Loan was intended
WEST INDIES:	£	
St. Lucia . .	18,000	Immigration and Public Works
Jamaica {	500,000	Redemption of certain Debts of the Colony .
	367,600	Extension of Period of Repayment of Loans under 11 & 12 Vict. c. 130, and 17 & 18 Vict. c. 54. (The Debentures under 32 & 33 Vict. c. 69, were issued in exchange for Debentures under the former Acts, to the extent of 287,700 <i>l.</i> 79,900 <i>l.</i> of them are retained, unissued; these will be applied so far as needed in aid of the Sinking Fund for the redemption of the outstanding bonds issued under 17 & 18 Vict. c. 54.)
NEW ZEALAND {	500,000	Payment of Debts due by Colony, and Purchase of Native Lands.
	500,000	Expenses in connection with the New Zealand War, Immigration, and other purposes.
	1,000,000	Immigration and construction of Roads, Bridges, and other Communications.
	3,000,000	Construction of Railway from Rivière du Loup, Quebec, to Truro, Nova Scotia.
CANADA . .	300,000	Purchase of Rupert's Land from Hudson's Bay Company.
	3,000,000	Construction of Pacific Railway, and Improve- ment of Canals.
TURKEY . .	5,000,000	Prosecution with vigour of the War with Russia (Interest guaranteed jointly and severally with France.)
DANUBE EURO- PEAN COM- MISSION	135,000	Improvement of the Mouth of the River . . (Interest and Sinking Fund guaranteed jointly and severally with Germany, France, Turkey, and Italy.)
METROPOLI- TAN BOARD OF WORKS. }	4,200,000	Main Drainage of the Metropolis
	3,730,000	Thames Embankment and Metropolis Improve- ment
IRISH CHURCH- TEMPORALI- TIES COM- MISSION.	1,000,000	Intermediate Education, Ireland
Ditto.	9,000,000	Purposes of the Irish Church Act
BOARD OF TRADE	70,000	Constructing Lighthouse on Great Basses Rock, Ceylon.
NATIONAL- SCHOOL TEACHERS, IRELAND.	500	In aid of Pension Fund

Note.—In addition to the Guaranteed Loans above mentioned, Great Britain took upon herself, under the Acts 55 Geo. 3, c. 115, and 2 & 3 Will. 4 c. 81, a debt of 25,000,000 florins, Dutch currency (the sum of a Loan contracted by Russia in Holland), in order that a suitable return might be made

THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT.

Interest Paid by Treasury	Amount Paid off by Sinking Fund	Amount Outstanding on March 31, 1880	Nominal Amount of Securities held on Account of Sinking Fund on March 31, 1880	
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
—	13,000 0 0	5,000 0 0	5,634 3 1	{ 3 per Cent. Re- duced Annuities. Colonial Deben- tures and India 4 per Cent. Stock.
—	428,600 0 0	71,400 0 0	17,515 18 6	
—	—	287,700 0 0	64,895 11 10	
—	—	500,000 0 0	351,400 0 0	{ New Zealand De- bentures.
—	—	500,000 0 0	99,200 0 0	
—	—	1,000,000 0 0	Only 200,000 <i>l.</i> has been actually raised. The Sinking Fund does not come into operation until the 1st September next.	
—	—	3,000,000 0 0	358,600 0 0	Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia De- bentures.
—	—	300,000 0 0	39,800 0 0	{ Canada Bonds.
—	—	3,000,000 0 0	86,400 0 0	
101,795 0 0 (including expenses.)	1,184,800 0 0 The last pay- ment on ac- count of Sink- ing Fund was in August 1875	3,815,200 0 0	<i>N.B.</i> —The Turkish Government have the option of redeeming this balance at par at any time after January 1, 1878, on giving six months' notice.	
—	96,355 8 7	38,644 11 5	—	—
—	2,934,000 0 0	1,266,000 0 0	—	—
—	3,260,000 0 0	470,000 0 0	—	—
—	—	1,000,000 0 0	—	—
—	3,300,000 0 0	5,700,000 0 0	—	—
—	12,500 0 0	57,500 0 0	The Principal and Interest of the Loan are charged upon the dues eligible in respect of the Lighthouse on the Great Basses Rock, and the Lightship on Little Basses Rock.	
—	—	500 0 0	—	—

STATEMENT OF UNREPAID ADVANCES MADE TO COLONIAL GOVERNMENTS FROM VOTES OF PARLIAMENT AND TREASURY CHEST FUND.

COLONIES	Year in which Voted	Amount	Purpose for which Advance made	Amount remaining un-repaid.
		£ s. d.		£ s. d.
Vancouver Is- land.	1859-62	6,247 0 0	For the erection of Lighthouses in Fucas Straits and Esqui- malt Harbour, Van- couver's Island.	6,247 0 0
St. Helena .	1871-2	5,158 0 0	To defray certain Debts specified in Parliamentary Paper 395, of 1871, p. 14.	5,158 0 0
Fiji . . {	1875-6	40,000 0 0	Ditto	105,000 0 0
	1876-7	35,000 0 0		
	1877-8	30,000 0 0		
Transvaal .	1877-8	100,000 0 0	To meet immediate necessities of Pro- vincial Government.	100,000 0 0
Sierra Leone	1876-7	38,000 0 0	To assist in Financial difficulties.	33,000 0 0
Natal . . .	—	25,206 3 11	Construction and Maintenance of Tele- graph Lines.	25,206 3 11
Griqua Land West.	—	19,919 0 0	Expedition to sup- press Outbreak at Kimberley.	11,919 17 1
Ditto . .	1879-80	222,200 0 0	To suppress Outbreak on the Orange River.	222,200 0 0
Honduras .	—	7,333 3 8	Military Service . .	7,333 3 8

A COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE NATIONAL DEBTS, BUDGETS, AND NAVAL AND MILITARY EXPENDITURE OF THE VARIOUS EUROPEAN NATIONS SINCE THE CONSOLIDATION OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

—	1865	1880
	£	£
Germany	128,250,000	220,000,000
Austro-Hungary	309,500,000	421,250,000
France	556,000,000	825,000,000
Great Britain	808,500,000	738,850,000
Russia	208,000,000	600,000,000
Italy	183,000,000	408,500,000
Spain	210,000,000	525,000,000
Holland	87,000,000	82,000,000
Belgium	25,000,000	62,200,000
Denmark	9,500,000	10,250,000
Sweden	4,500,000	12,000,000
Norway	1,900,000	7,250,000
Portugal	40,000,000	82,500,000
Greece	7,250,000	24,300,000
Turkey	48,000,000	250,000,000
States formerly under Turkish protection . .	200,000	21,000,000
Switzerland	150,000	1,400,000
Total	2,626,750,000	4,291,500,000

BUDGETS OF ALL THE EUROPEAN STATES.

—	1865	1880
	£	£
Germany	31,850,000	66,050,000
Austro-Hungary	52,050,000	61,250,000
France	94,500,000	125,200,000
Great Britain	67,500,000	85,500,000
Russia	51,600,000	107,500,000
Italy	36,300,000	56,500,000
Spain	26,250,000	30,100,000
Holland	7,400,000	10,200,000
Belgium	6,800,000	10,850,000
Denmark	1,500,000	2,300,000
Sweden	2,100,000	4,500,000
Norway	1,100,000	2,800,000
Portugal	4,500,000	7,000,000
Greece	1,050,000	1,880,000
Turkey	12,400,000	13,000,000
States formerly under Turkish protection	1,150,000	5,250,000
Switzerland	750,000	1,700,000
Total	398,800,000	591,580,000

TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON LAND AND SEA FORCES.

—	1865	1880
	£	£
Germany	9,900,000	21,350,000
Austro-Hungary	11,500,000	11,150,000
France	17,800,000	27,000,000
Great Britain	27,000,000	32,250,000
Russia	21,900,000	36,500,000
Italy	11,550,000	9,250,000
Spain	6,000,000	6,000,000
Holland	1,850,000	2,950,000
Belgium	1,450,000	1,900,000
Denmark	450,000	900,000
Sweden	800,000	1,300,000
Norway	350,000	550,000
Portugal	1,000,000	1,800,000
Greece	300,000	600,000
Turkey	4,800,000	5,000,000
States formerly under Turkish protection	600,000	1,900,000
Switzerland	350,000	550,000
Total	117,600,000	160,950,000

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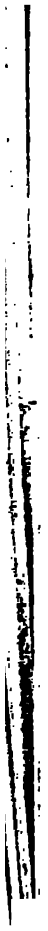
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**THE DEVELOPMENT OF CREATION
ON THE EARTH.**

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF CREATION ON THE EARTH.

BY

THOMAS LUMISDEN STRANGE,

LATE A JUDGE OF THE HIGH COURT OF MADRAS.

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“Does the Lord of Truth Himself speak to us, even in these discoveries, or suggestions of scientific research, and is He calling upon us, and inviting us, in them, to abandon, or to alter and qualify, our ancient and long-descended ideas by these new revelations of His infinite activity in the ages of the past?”—*G. Vance Smith in the Contemporary Review for April 1874.*

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Sample

Quinham

THE phenomena of nature, to which the following pages relate, cannot present themselves to any thinking mind without claiming from it some solution. Hitherto we have been accustomed to suppose that we had before us, in an inspired record, a reliable account, in outline, of this earth's history, exhibiting to us the manner in which all things we observe were put into shape, or called into being, and the time when this was effected; but as knowledge has advanced, the Biblical representations have become exposed as untenable, so that with most instructed persons it has become a necessity to frame, upon the ascertained facts, some surer ideal of the mode in which the creative processes have been carried out, and to form some conception of the true probable periods involved in bringing them to their present stage of development.

On certain points, all who have any measure of knowledge on these subjects may be said to be agreed. The method has not been by sudden magical demonstrations of power, in so many distinct successive acts. Human delineators are apt to seek, by scenic representations, to attract attention to alleged direct divine agency. Such is not the character of true creative power, which moves silently, majestically, and unerringly, with no hurried

action or spasmodic effort, to its appointed ends. Through well-ordered systems, in use of natural means, simple yet grand in the magnitude of their results ; without limits of time or stint of applied forces ; slowly, gradually, but inevitably, from some early primitive stage, through a long series of methodized operations, we see accomplished, works planned with consummate design, and executed with unfailing skill. We have to consider the architect who exhibits himself in these stupendous undertakings. The means and channels through which the work is effected and maintained, are the known properties and susceptibilities of the materials used, brought into endless combinations. Nothing moves but in a law-directed course. All yields implicit obedience to the governance appointed to it. Some of the materials are readily discernible in their tangible solidity. Others more or less evade analysis and observation, such as the gaseous bodies, and heat, light, and magnetism ; and these are the most active and most powerful in their agency. Each atom has its uses and adaptibilities, and takes its place, and performs its part, in never-resting action, realizing the required adaptations for the composition of specific and closely allied forms. Nothing has independent existence or isolated aim. The power that moves the whole does not prosecute these labours by convulsive starts, nor is it ever exhausted. Creation knows no pause. It is always consistent with itself. What has been, is, and ever will be. We stand as inquiring observers in the midst of this unceasing work. We have not to contemplate the pictorial exhibition of an accomplished task. We are in the presence of a living artist continually displaying his resources, project-

ing what is illimitable, and unfathomable, holding us floating in the midst of an eternally expanding creation. The scenic view suits the sentiments of an uninstructed mind, and was devised in days of unavoidable ignorance. The comprehension of the well-ordered, truly-balanced, never-ending correlation of forces, with their perpetually diversified results, feeds the apprehensions of those who have better discernment. The imaginary representation dwarfs and debases the understanding; the true study nourishes and exalts the sentient being in the contemplation of the march of courses that are interminable. The recipient of the legendary statement is as one who has made his little fortune and invested it, neither discreetly nor profitably; the student of nature is in the midst of boundless wealth multiplying itself in unceasing and ever-varying fresh developments.

Our privilege is to contemplate and to endeavour to understand these great operations through the imperishable records they have left behind them. The earth, as it has often been observed, is laid out like a well-ordered cabinet, presenting to us, in measure, some means of judging how the laws of nature and the essential properties of matter have worked out all we see before us. That there have been depositions of strata, gradually laid down, and stocked with the remains of the living objects, vegetal and animal, that flourished when they were being imposed, is an universally acknowledged fact. It speaks of a constantly maintained series of operations whereby the globe has been brought to its present condition, and which are ever advancing it to stages that are still before it. That immeasurable ages have been consumed in effecting these developments is

also conceded. We witness the very graduated rate of the existing advances, and can see that the past action must have been conducted in the same slow, deliberate manner. For a time a stand was made in favour of the modern history assigned in the Biblical representations to the human race, but now all who have made the study, in view of the remains he has left behind him, and their position in the shelves of the earth's cabinet, are satisfied that to man also belongs some indefinable antiquity.

But there are other questions on which inquirers are not agreed, and which therefore still lie within the domains of fair discussion ; and unless I had had something to offer on these heads, I should have indulged in no representations of what is so currently accepted. The conditions of my argument have made it necessary that the known landmarks should be properly understood and worked upon ; nor could the Biblical statements, on which in other works I have been occupied, have been properly passed by without exhibiting what we know of the actual processes of creation. The doctrine of evolution, that is the production of settled organized forms out of shapeless matter, is one very generally received ; but it is coupled, by a certain class of students of nature, with the suggestion that one shape has grown out of another. Is there no better conception of the process to be formed than this, resting upon less hypothetical reasonings ? The theory that every living object has been produced from an antecedent germ, which is true in the generality of current instances, is sought to be applied to all. But the allegation meets with an insuperable difficulty, still to be solved, when we go back in thought to the

primeval germ producer. In what manner did this object come into being, having no germ before it from whence to issue? How the Infusoria are formed is a great question on which naturalists are far from agreed. Do they spring from imperceptible germs, or are they constituted, primitively, out of surrounding materials? If produced in this latter manner, do they possibly afford a rule for the primitive formation of the superior classes of animated objects? In what way have the different regions of the globe, however isolated, been stocked with appropriate products, vegetal and animal? What has led to those great climatic changes, whereby the same portions of the earth have had at various times climates that were glacial, temperate, and tropical? What causes the constant contortions and dislocations of strata, and the upheaval and depression of land levels? Above all, from what ultimate power do all these great and diversified operations witnessed by us proceed? Are the laws which effectuate them all sufficient to that end? or is there behind and beyond these laws some supreme designer and operator who through them is working out all things to the accomplishment of pre-determined ends?

The solutions I have ventured to offer on these important questions are based, as carefully as I have been able to maintain myself, upon observed results. In studying nature we fall into inevitable peril directly we begin to build upon anything but her own exhibited ways. My rule has been to assume that the methods by which traceable phenomena have been effected, are those by which strictly corresponding phenomena, whose actual processes of elimination are not disclosed to us, have

been brought about. It is the lesson currently followed in judging of the stratified formations of the crust of the earth, and the domination of the known forces which act upon all things of which we are cognizant. What is wrought in one way in present times, has been, we conclude, the manner in which similar things have been wrought in past times. To assert any other course is to assume a knowledge without data on which to found it, and is in effect a mere indulgence of the imagination. Much, no doubt, is to be gained only upon deduction, but then the stepping-stones on which we make our advances should be ascertained and sure. With such certainties I have to the best of my ability armed myself, in the endeavour to fathom the great mysteries which offer themselves to us for our study and comprehension.

GREAT MALVERN, *May* 1874.

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I.

THE PROCESSES OF CREATION.

A COMMON idea of creation is that it is the production of something out of nothing. But of any such operation we have no experience. Whatever is brought under our observation has been formed from some prior existing material. It is, therefore, a contradiction of our senses to suppose that anything has been called into being having a thoroughly independent origin. The ancients believed in the eternity of matter, and it is impossible to present to our minds a condition existing devoid of matter associated with it. There are postulates for which the human mind is incapable of conceiving a solution. If the idea of a self-existent deity may be entertained, that is one. There can have been no time when he was not, and then came into being, and yet we are wholly unable to compass the idea of one in existence who has never had a beginning. It is the same as to infinitude of space and eternity of time. There can be no confines to space beyond which there is no space, or any degree of remoteness of time beyond which there was no time; and yet the constitution of our minds, exercised ever over what has limits, cannot realize the idea of anything existing without limits. And it is thus as to the eternity of matter. If eternity attaches to space, as is necessarily the case, then we cannot conceive that such space can ever have existed void of material contents. It is impossible, it has been well observed, to place before our imaginations the conception of "nothing." If, then, there must have been something to express and occupy the space, we have before us the necessity for an eternity of matter, equally as for an eternity of time and space. In keeping with this condition is the non-destructibility of matter. It is decomposed and passes into other forms, but is never obliterated from absolute being.

But while it must be true that matter has always existed, its various combinations and presented forms certainly denote operations which have had sensible beginnings. The globe we inhabit is such an object. It is suggested that it may have been thrown off from the nucleus of the sun in gaseous condition, and has gradually cooled down and become solidified. This may have been so, but my purpose will be sufficiently met by dealing with the earth from the time when it was constituted in form such as is presented to the senses.

We find the earth laid out in various strata, containing in a fossilized condition the remains of the organic objects which have occupied its various successive surfaces, the whole being super-imposed on unstratified rock, void of such organic remains, which must have constituted its original crust. The earliest fossils are invariably of marine origin (Frith, *Thoughts and Meditations on the Mysteries of Life*, 36, 200), whereby we may conclude that at the outset the earth consisted of its granitic crust, submerged in water. The primitive rock was destitute of the constituents of life. It was wanting in carbon, sulphur, and phosphorus, which are necessary elements, and was everywhere covered by a vast ocean, in the depths of which, in the process of time, those changes were wrought which eliminated life (Frith, 197-200).

The granitic crust would be subject to those volcanic disturbances that must have ever prevailed. There would be upheavals from below, and gases bursting through with molten matter, which would be ejected on its surface. The broken portions would undergo attrition in the waters prevailing over them, and in time become decomposed, and recomposed with surrounding elements. First, would be deposited those layers of schist and clay slate, observable on the granite, which are chemically like the granite, and therefore devoid of all signs of life (Frith, 197). The process of dissolution and deposition advanced; and as the materials became more and more mobile, and rose to higher levels, they became susceptible of admitting into their composition other ingredients, prominently what could be received of the hydrogen and oxygen belonging to the surrounding water, and the carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen derivable from the inter-penetrating atmosphere. For example, in the Bala limestone, which belongs to the

lower Silurian system, are the first traces of that necessary constituent of life, carbon (Frith, 197). In the Silurian rocks accordingly are found the earliest evidences of life on the globe, which appear in the shape of algæ, or marine plants, corals, sponge-like substances, small sea-shells, worm-like forms, and a well organized small crustacean, termed the Trilobite (Frith, 36). As the system progressed, there are shown to have been further developments of marine plants, zoophytes, radiata, mollusca, and crustaceans, until at length, in the upper strata of these deposits, are fishes (Frith, 200). To this time no land organisms appear; all life, whether vegetal or animal, was of marine origin (Frith, 200). We now pass into superior strata, termed the Devonian, or Old Red Sandstone. The marine products were continued, but with considerable variation; and there are also here evidences of terrestrial flora, in the shape of marsh plants, reeds, rushes, and fern-like plants (Frith, 36; Page, *Past and Present Life on the Globe*, 92). The detritus laid at the bottom of the universal ocean has accumulated, the volcanic upheavals have been adding more and more of fresh materials brought up from the inner cavities of the earth, the gases from the water and the air have been continually added thereto, vegetable and animal forms have been produced, and have multiplied, and their decay and decomposition have supplied further materials for the elimination of new forms. Gradually the depths of the ocean have been reduced by the depositions laid upon its primeval bed; and, with the aid of upheavals from below, the land has in places at length asserted itself above the level of the waters.

“The thickness of the crust of the earth has evidently been continually increasing. The stratified rocks are not composed altogether of waste derived from previously existing rocks, but throughout the whole process newly solidified matter, derived chiefly from the waters of the ocean, but also to some extent from the atmosphere, has mingled with the *débris* derived from the wear and tear of older rocks” (Frith, 234, 235).

“Instead of the surface of the earth being that stable, fixed thing, that it is popularly believed to be—being, in common parlance, the very emblem of fixity itself—it is incessantly moving, and is, in fact, as unstable as the surface of the sea,

except that its undulations are infinitely slower, and enormously higher and deeper" (Huxley, *Lectures to Working Men*, 34).

Mr Darwin gives numerous instances, met with by him in his travels, of extensive elevation and subsidence of land, illustrating "the never-ceasing mutability of the crust of this our world." The earth, he observes, "the type of solidity, has oscillated like a thin crust beneath our feet" (*Voyage of the Beagle*, III. 569, 606).

The movements here spoken of are so widely extended, graduated, and constant, that it is apparent they are due to some other cause than the violent irregular action of the explosive gases which burst from the interior of the earth, and produce earthquakes and volcanoes. But however caused, this fluctuation in the surfaces of the earth must have promoted the alteration in the conditions of its crust which has led to the generation thereupon of organic objects endowed with life.

With the establishment of dry land, we enter upon a new phase in the creation. A vast accession of productive power is obtained when the surfaces to be acted upon, freed of the obstructive medium of the waters, are exposed to the full influence of the solar rays, imparting light, heat, and magnetism, and to the atmosphere, with its gases and decomposed substances, ever ready, under the powerful stimulus of the sun's forces, to enter into fresh combinations. A period of prolific growth of vegetation ensued, and introduced the carboniferous era. In the vegetable kingdom we have club mosses, ferns, tree-ferns, conifers, and palms, often of gigantic dimensions; and in the animal, insects, reptiles, wingless birds, marsupials, and fish of a higher type than before existed (Frith, 37). The coal deposits are of vast extent, and have been formed of submerged forests, solidified into mineral compost. Similar processes are continuously going on. Peat bogs are of this character, being vegetable deposits in course of being mineralized. Successive growths of forest, one rising upon the *débris* of the other, have occurred. In Denmark, a forest of pine has, after flourishing and decaying, been succeeded by one of oak, which, in like manner, has been replaced by one of beeches (Lubbock, *Pre-historic Times*, 196). In the Delta of the Mississippi a growth of aquatic plants has been followed by forests of cypress, of which ten in succession have been observed;

and over all now is one of live oaks (*Types of Mankind*, 337, 338). Herbs and trees everywhere, as they cast off their leaves and refuse parts, create upon the subsoil vegetable mould, often of considerable depth, and forming food for fresh fertility.

"The course of vitality is thus for ever onward and upward—onward in the introduction of forms having more varied geographical adaptations, and upward in the manifestation of higher physiological and functional performance. . . . If there is one truth that geology has established more clearly than another, it is that of the progressive evolution of life on this globe—not progress from imperfection to perfection, for all are alike fitted to the end for which they were created, but progress from simpler to more specialized forms. All the discoveries that have been made, and are daily making, never controvert in the least this great order of life; nor do the ablest geologists, though anticipating many new forms, ever expect to find it otherwise with creation than onward and still upward" (Page, *Life on the Globe*, 111-113).

"Life begins at the base, or near the base, of the stratified rocks. Vegetable life commences with fungi, and animal life with globular cells, corals, and jelly fish. Each succeeding age has added to these humble forms of life some organ, some limb, some function, some sense, which was not possessed by their predecessors; so that there has been a gradual development of function, accompanied by increased energy of life and beauty of form" (Frith, 236, 237).

The chalk deposits, which are of great extent, exhibit the powers that can be exercised in the generation of life at great depths, at the bottom of the ocean, and thus illustrate the operations in eliminating life when all such process had to be carried on upon surfaces buried under the universal Silurian waters. The chalk to be found in Europe, North Africa, Syria, and the Crimea, if all laid together, would form an irregular space of about 3000 miles in its widest diameter. In some places in England it reaches a thickness of 1000 feet. When examined under a microscope, it will be found "made up of very minute granules; but, imbedded in this matrix, are innumerable bodies, some smaller and some larger, but, on a rough average, not more than a hundredth of an inch in

diameter, having a well-defined shape and structure. A cubic inch of some specimens of chalk may contain hundreds of thousands of these bodies, compacted together with incalculable millions of the granules." These rounded bodies are of various shapes, beautifully constructed, with inter-communicating chambers. In preparation for laying down the Atlantic cable, the ocean was carefully sounded, and its bottom examined for a space of 1700 miles, from Ireland to Newfoundland. Over a space measuring about 1000 miles, by a breadth of 600 or 700 miles, and at a depth in places of 10,000 feet, a fine chalky mud was found in process of deposition, consisting entirely of the hard parts of minute animals, which in time become solidified into chalky limestone, leading thus to the certain conclusion "that the chalk is the mud of an ancient sea bottom" (Huxley, *Lay Sermons*, 175-191; also, *Lectures to Working Men*, 43). The explorations of the sea-beds have been prosecuted with important results. "Dredges, weighing with their load of mud nearly half-a-ton, have been hauled up without a hitch from depths of some 14,000 feet." And these "deep-sea dredgings have proved that not only does life exist in the very deepest parts of the Atlantic, but that beings which live, and move, and have their being beneath the three-mile mountain of water, have eyes which the ablest naturalists pronounce to be perfectly developed. Light, then, of some sort, must exist in those abysms" (Proctor, *Light Science for Leisure Hours*, 146, 147).

The labours of the coral insects also show the prolific powers which are exercised under the surface of the sea. "Nothing can be more impressive than the manner in which these diminutive creatures carry out their stupendous undertakings. Commencing from a depth of 1000 or 1500 feet, they work upwards in a perpendicular direction, and, on arriving at the surface, form a crescent, presenting the back of the arch in that direction from which storms and winds generally proceed, by which means the wall protects the busy millions at work beneath and within" (Hogg, *On the Microscope*, 236). "They rear from the ocean-bed vast craggy terraces, hundreds of miles in length" (Milton, *Stream of Life on the Globe*, 39). "Such coral reefs cover many thousand square miles in the Pacific and in the Indian oceans. There is one reef, or rather great

series of reefs, called the Barrier Reef, which stretches almost continuously for more than 1100 miles off the east coast of Australia. Multitudes of the islands in the Pacific are either reefs themselves, or are surrounded by reefs. The Red Sea is in many parts almost a maze of such reefs; and they abound no less in the West Indies, along the coast of Florida, and even as far north as the Bahama Islands" (Huxley, *Critiques and Addresses*, 118). The coral insects cannot live at a depth exceeding about twenty-five fathoms. At lower depths nothing but dead coral is brought up. There are formations stretching for 1000 miles or more, having a depth of 2000 feet or more below the surface of the sea, the solution presenting itself being that there has been a slow continuous rising of the sea level, with which the coral insects in their structures have kept pace (Ibid. 122-128).

Vegetable life is of facile occurrence, of nearly universal prevalence, and endowed with enormous reproductive powers. Wherever a surface of granite is abraded and disintegrated, lichens and mosses appear (*Approximations to Truth*, 12). Mosses can multiply themselves 200 or 300 times in a week. Rust, smut, mildew, mould, and all such blights on the surfaces of living plants, are due to myriads of microscopic fungi (Bastian, *The Beginnings of Life*, II. 338, App. lxv.). Supposing the dry land to be 51,000,000 of square miles, and all parts in contact together, and subject to the same climate, a plant occupying one square foot, from which fifty seeds germinated annually, would in nine years multiply itself so as to cover the whole space (Huxley, *Lectures to Working Men*, 122, 123). The author gives the figures leading to such result. Insect life is very prolific. All vegetation swarms with it; and it is life of short duration, continuously depositing its decomposed elements, to be as constantly renewed in fresh organizations. Infusoria swarm in all stagnant waters, and are evolved wherever moisture and heat are brought to bear upon decaying substances. Fish life is also very prolific, and is constantly increasing the animal deposits in rivers, lakes, and oceans.

The materials from which all organisms are produced are obtained more from the fluid and aerial elements than from the solid ingredients of the earth. The great agency is in the plant

tribes. They have the power of gathering their constituents from earth, air, and water, and creating from them organic matter. Carbon is their chief component; and this is collected from the atmosphere by their leaves, and taken up by their rootlets from rain water. All vegetation, including the great forest growths, is thus mainly obtained from the air; and when decayed, a certain portion of it solidifies into earth. Animals, as a rule, are powerless for the creation of organic matter. They replenish and build up their structures by feeding on vegetable growths, and assimilating the organic tissues which these have provided. By exhalation, excrementation, and final decay and decomposition, they give back to the atmosphere, in their primitive states, the gases entering into their composition, acquired from that source originally through the medium of the vegetable kingdom, leaving but a small residuum of what has constituted them to be deposited on the earth; so that plants and animals may be said to be *the offspring of the air* (Bastian, I. 131-136). In the flesh of adult mammalia water forms 68 to 71 per cent., organic substance from 24 to 28 per cent., and inorganic substance from 3 to 5 per cent.; and in the foetal state the water amounts to 87 per cent., and the solid organic constituents to only 11 per cent. (Herbert Spencer, *Principles of Biology*, I. 125). The circumambient air is therefore the great storehouse from which the earth is stocked with inhabitants, vegetal and animal; and the solid crust of the globe is replenished and continuously added to by that portion of their materials, undispersed in gases, which is deposited upon it at their decay.

It becomes thus apparent that organic forms are put together out of surrounding elements by some power directing the combination. We see in nature unceasing chemical operations, ingredient brought to ingredient, fresh properties thereby evolved, further composition ensuing, higher power eliminated, until at length, all circumstances favouring, in some mysterious manner we have before us organisms endowed with life, and capable of repeating themselves *ad infinitum*. The first living element that is produced is termed protein, and the first form of life, whether in vegetation or animals, is cellular (Huxley, *Lectures to Working Men*, 26). The progressive growth is by a repetition of the cellular forms projected from the original

cell as the development advances. These alter in shape and position. Some unite together to form a tube; and others, by interposition of denser matter, become solid (Herbert Spencer, *Principles of Biology*, I. 140). The plant begins as a little seed. It soon draws into itself water, and carbonic acid from the air, and combines them into protein (Huxley, *Lectures to Working Men*, 4). The seed throws out shoots, from which leaves are expanded, till the whole structure is completed. The largest plants are made up of a combination of such units as constitute the smallest. A tree is but an assemblage of numerous united shoots, and a similar process of building up the form is traceable through a considerable part of the animal kingdom (Herbert Spencer, I. 109). Professor Huxley gives as an illustration the development of the embryo of a horse. At first it is a cell, or in effect an egg, which passes out of the ovary of the mare. This cell has a nucleus in its centre, surrounded by a clear space and by a viscid mass of protein. In time there appears upon its surface a little elevation, which becomes divided by a groove. Gradually from this groove a double tube is formed. In the upper and smaller tube the spinal marrow and brain are fashioned; in the lower, the alimentary canal and heart. Two pairs of buds shoot out at the sides of the body, which are the rudiments of the limbs. Gradually the whole body is formed in all its varied parts of muscle, gristle, bone, fibrous tissue, and hair (*Lectures to Working Men*, 18). The growth of a man, observes Mr Herbert Spencer, is similar to that of a shoot of a plant evolved from a bud. A little tongue-shaped projection buds out from the side of the embryo. This lengthens, and a pedicle is formed at its end, which flattens and divides into the fingers. Afterwards the elbow-joint is formed, and the limb is thus gradually completed. The rudimentary arm is at first a mass of cells. These fall into place, and become bones, muscles, blood vessels, and nerves (*Principles of Biology*, I. 140).

The human germ outwardly resembles the germs of all plants and animals, between which there are no apparent differences. Gradually it becomes distinguished as an animal germ, but is not different from those of all fishes, reptiles, birds, and mammals. Then it assumes the characters of a

mammal germ; of a placental mammal; of a placental ungulate or clawed mammal; of the quadrumana; and finally of the human species (Herbert Spencer, I. 142). There is a time, equally observes Professor Huxley, when the embryos of neither dog, nor horse, nor porpoise, nor monkey, nor man, can be distinguished by any essential feature from one another (*Lectures to Working Men*, 19).

The substance of which organized bodies, vegetal and animal, are formed, is termed colloid, in distinction from crystals, which belong to mineral formations. The colloid, or gluey substance, is elastic, pliable, and penetrable by liquid, while the crystal is hard and unyielding. But there is no impassable line between the two. For example, crystals are formed by blood pigments, and simple saline substances may pass into the colloidal condition (Bastian, *Beginnings of Life*, II. 39, 40). Where a viscid ingredient, such as a solution of gum, albumen, or glycerine, was introduced, forms have been obtained closely resembling the simplest organisms (Bastian, II. 60-63). Mr St George Mivart makes the bolder assertion that colloidal matter formed from crystalline matter, when exposed to certain conditions, presents the phenomena of life (*Genesis of Species*, 306). The passage of inorganic into organic matter, which as a fact is indisputable, becomes thus evidenced to the senses.

The process of crystallization is analogous to that of the building up of organized forms. Mr Crosse, by means of weak galvanic currents, obtained a long list of crystallized minerals similar to what hitherto had been only met with in mineral veins (Bastian, I. 238; II. 57). It is therefore by composition out of surrounding elements that these products occur.

In crystallization each salt separates from the solution only those molecules that are like itself. It is just so in the animal economy. Muscle, nerve, or bone, each selects from the general supplies of the blood its own proper constituent (Bastian, II. 78, 79). The form of the crystal varies, to some extent, according to the solvent from which it separates itself (*Ibid.* II. 58). The crystals of common salts from pure water are cubes; but if boracic acid is introduced, the cubes are truncated. Carbonate of copper, crystallizing from a solution containing sulphuric acid, forms hexagonal tubular prisms; but if a little ammonia is added, the form changes to that of

a long rectangular prism, with secondary planes in the angles. If a little more ammonia is introduced, several varieties of rhombic octahedra appear; if a little nitric acid is put in, the rectangular prism appears again. The change occurs, not by addition of new crystals, but by alteration of the original ones (St. G. Mivart, 128, 129). The same mineral substance in a state of solution, when subjected to different conditions, gives out quite different crystalline forms; and, under further alteration of condition, will change form again (Bastian, II. 492). Temperature has much to do in varying the forms. Through this influence, alone rounded and cellular forms are produced in lieu of angular ones. Temperature also affects the colorization (Ibid. II. 58-60). Light also alters the structural form (Herbert Spencer, I. 485).

The fact that the symmetrical forms of minerals are due to their components as acted on by surrounding agencies, affords the probability that such is the case in the production of vegetal and animal formations (St. George Mivart, 188). The formation of crystals is wholly independent of anything like organic functions, of which they have none; and there may be similar formative laws for organisms (Ibid. 209). Fungi will alter their forms from the same germ according to the soil on which it falls (Ibid. 129). The common edible mushroom is cultivated with as much certainty as any other vegetable, although no seeds are ever sown. None but the required sort appears under the treatment pursued; whereas if the growth came from germs in the air, there would be many varieties (Bastian, II. 433). The rosebush, the hoof of a dead horse, and the dung of cats, have their appropriate fungi, which can scarcely arise from germs in the air, each electing its proper foundation (Mivart, 129). Extraneous growths of an abnormal nature, occurring on animal substances, demonstrate the formative properties of animal matter. The pattern on the diseased pelvis of a lion, of a very complex character, had not one spot or line on one side which was not represented, as exactly as it would be in a mirror, on the other. The eruptions of eczema, lepra, and psoriasis; the deformities of chronic rheumatism; the paralysis from lead; the eruptions excited by iodide of potassium or copaiba; the syphilitic caries of the skull; rheumatic and syphilitic deposits on the tibiae, and other

bones; the effects of chronic rheumatic arthritis in the bones, ligaments, or cartilages; the fatty and earthy deposits in the coats of arteries,—all occur in exact symmetry (Ibid. 205).

There is vegetal and animal chemistry equally as there is mineral chemistry. Sexual propagation is in fact only a form of chemical union. The spermatozoa is the male product, and the ova the female. They coalesce, and the effect is a reproduction of the species to which the parent germs belong. But there is also asexual reproduction both of plants and of animals, the latter being such as are of low type; and this is an operation analogous to the mineral processes. Plants may be propagated by cuttings, or from bulbs thrown off, as well as from seed. In the *Drosera Intermedia* young plants are occasionally developed from the surfaces of the leaves while still connected with the parent plant. The *Volvox* and *Hydrodictyon* develop broods of young plants within themselves, and give them exit by bursting. The Polype, which is something intermediate between the vegetable and the animal, buds out from its parent stem, having a common alimentary canal through which the nutrition of all members of the united family is carried on, the whole presenting a tree-like aggregation. Some of the buds, instead of developing like the rest, are converted into capsules, in which eggs are formed. The repetition by cuttings, as with plants, may also be effected with these low animal forms. A *Begonia* leaf may be broken up into a hundred parts, and each part, in suitable soil, will become a perfect plant. In like manner a polype may be cut into several pieces, and each piece will grow into an entire form. The process may be repeated, so that as many as fifty polypes have thus resulted from a single one. Bodies when cut off regenerated heads; heads regenerated bodies; and when a polype had been divided into as many pieces as was practicable, nearly every piece survived and became a complete animal. Some of the lower Annelids, as the *Nais*, may be cut into thirty or forty pieces, and each piece will become a perfect animal. The recuperative power is displayed in the ability which some animals have to restore lost parts. Among the Hydrozoa any portion of the body can reproduce the rest, even when the greater half has to be reproduced. In the more highly organized Actinozoa the half of an individual will grow

into a complete individual. As the scale ascends this power diminishes. A lobster or crab can reproduce a lost claw. Some of the inferior vertebrata, as lizards, can develop new limbs and new tails, when these are cut off, and this several times over (Herbert Spencer, I. 175, 180, 203, 208, 216). A salamander also can renew its limbs (Darwin, *Descent of Man*, II. 385). In the superior forms the power is limited to repairing injuries, as in the junction of broken bones and the cicatrizing of wounds.

"A very curious instance of the modification of force producing a radical change in constitution is presented by bees when they have lost a queen. The workers are sexless, or rather, they are females with the reproductive organs undeveloped. When a colony is without a queen, one of the worker grubs is taken and fed on stimulating food, reserved for exclusive use by the queen. This strong diet soon develops the sexual organ of the bee, alters the shape of her tongue, jaws, and sting, deprives her of the power of producing wax, and obliterates the hollows in the thighs adapted for the transport of pollen" (Baring-Gould, *Origin and Development of Religious Belief*, I. 19, 20).

The processes we have had under consideration are all effected by analogous laws. The surface of the earth, through various operating causes, becomes comminuted into finer particles, and rendered mobile and susceptible by deposition in water. It then is capable of entering into more and more refined combinations with surrounding elements, chiefly atmospheric. At length life is evolved, first in plant forms and afterwards in animals. The vegetal forms have the power of assimilating to themselves the inorganic components, while the animal forms depend for their supplies on vegetable tissues, which they convert into flesh and other animal constituents. A formative power is apparent in the ingredients as acted upon by external influences. Parts enter into combination with suitable parts, and light, heat, and magnetism govern the results, arranging and diversifying the structures. As it is with minerals in their process of crystallization, so is it in the composition and renovation of organized bodies. The requisite materials are sought out and obtained through mutual affinities, and are put together in appointed forms.

The growth of all organisms from the primitive cell to the adult proportions, their continuous sustentation, with the constant reparation of wastes, is evidence of material gathered out of surrounding elements, and applied, in formative action, for the development of the individual object, whether appertaining to the vegetable or the animal world. Based upon such operations is the process, patent to every observer, of life evolved from decomposed organisms. Whether it be vegetation or animals that undergo decay, from their remains myriads of minute living forms of fungi and animalculæ are inevitably engendered. The question is, are these life forms absolutely the issue of the surrounding elements, or do they owe their origin to germs attaching themselves to the decomposing substances, and there fructifying?

This question has long been the subject of controversy. The supporters of the germ solution allege it as a means of meeting a difficulty. The germs are not discoverable themselves, but it is thought that they must be there, because it is easier, in view of current processes, to believe in generation through this means than without it. But the difficulty is only postponed and not removed, for it has still to be considered how the first organism could have been formed without an antecedent germ. "With respect to spontaneous generation, while admitting that there is no experimental evidence in its favour, Professor Haeckel denies the possibility of disproving it, and points out that the assumption that it has occurred is a necessary part of the doctrine of Evolution" (Huxley, *Critiques and Addresses*, 304); a statement which Professor Huxley gives without disputing it, though himself an advocate for generation only by means of germs. The term "spontaneous generation," I may observe, as pointed out by Dr Bastian, is incorrect, there being no question of spontaneity in the process of the elimination of forms from pre-existing materials. Dr Bastian, in his able work, *The Beginnings of Life*, to which I have already had occasion to refer, details a number of experiments carefully conducted with the view of throwing light on this subject, of which I now avail myself.

The germ theory supposes that germs are floating in the air, ever ready to be made use of by the decomposing matter. The process of generation of life from this matter is carried on

so universally, and on such a scale, that it requires that the germs should be in proportionate multitudes, and everywhere present. But the fact is that few have ever been found in that position. For example, a vessel containing organic infusion has been placed by the side of a plate of glass smeared with glycerine to arrest what might be in the air; and the result has been that while the infusion in a few days swarmed with infusoria, the film of glycerine disclosed merely a very minute quantity of organic and inorganic *débris*, mixed with dead particles (II. 284). The elements of further compositions were thus found floating in the atmosphere, but not the germs.

Fungi have appeared in the interior of structures, some of which they could not possibly have invaded by intrusion of their germs from without, and these, consequently, must have been generated by composition of materials existing within. Bacteria and fungi have been found in profusion in the tissues and vessels of plants, into which the germs could not have passed from want of penetrating power (II. 318-322). Bacteria and Torula-like corpuscles occur in the cells of living plants, and in the central parts of plums and peaches, the external surfaces of which are perfect (II. 341). On shutting up silkworms in close damp bottles or boxes their blood has been found to acidulate, after which fungoid growths are generated within them, spreading themselves through the animals in all directions so as to cause death, and forcing themselves outside to their surfaces (II. 325-328). In this instance the results are apparently due to the treatment to which the insects were subjected, and the consequent decomposition of their blood, and not to introduction of germs foreign to them. Fungi in like manner are produced in the autumn in the blood of flies, and prove fatal to them (II. 330), an effect seemingly of climatic influence. Moving particles, some spherical and some line-like as Bacteria, were seen in the inner folds of the brain of a man who had died thirty-two hours before of rheumatic fever. No such organisms having been found in living patients, the conclusion is that they were formed in the brain *de novo* after death (II. 333-335). Bacteria have also been observed in the central parts of the organs of dead animals, as in a mass of brain tissue, and in the centre of the liver (II.

342). Well developed fungi have been found in the eggs of birds and serpents, growing from the surface of the yolk, the shells being uninjured (II. 350). They will be produced in eggs that are saturated with moisture and placed in a temperature of 100° to 104° (II. 366, 367), occurring thus, it must be thought, as those generated in the silkworm, from decomposition within, caused by noxious exposure to heat and damp, and not from germs introduced from without, which the perfect condition of the shells negatives. Fungi have also been found in the human eye (II. 351), and the appearance of live worms in the eyes of horses, visibly moving in the aqueous humour under the cornea, is common in India. To such a position germs from without could not have passed, and other domestic animals, such as the ox, the sheep, and the dog, not being subject to the invasion, it must be attributed to morbidity peculiar to the horse.

That the success of the experiments made with infusions depended on the materials used, was rendered apparent. A solution containing ammoniac sulphate and liquor of ferri perchloridi, and without organized substance or carbon, produced no organisms, but only crystals; while one with ammoniac carbonate and sodic phosphate had Bacteria and figure of eight bodies (I. 451, 454). Egg albumen and water will remain unchanged for months, but will always develop fungi within a few days after it has been slightly acidified (II. 328, note). The acidulation is here apparently the agent, as in the instance of the silkworms. If germs were the cause, why should they have delayed their arrival, or have remained torpid for such periods? Life has never been educed from solutions in sealed flasks from which carbon was excluded, except when silicon was introduced (App. x.).

Heat is a constituent which affects these experiments. This may be raised to a pitch to break up the colloidal compounds, destroying their power of combination (I. 433). Solutions, for example, heated to from 327° to 464° F., were wholly infertile (I. 469). A certain amount of heat was at the same time necessary to success. Solutions were infertile at a temperature of 59° F., and fertile at that of 79° - 80° F. (I. 437 and note).

It has been established that life is extinguished in spores

of fungi, and in certain animals of low type, when subjected in dry air for half an hour to a temperature of 260° - 266° F.; but when immersed in fluid, it has been found that few organisms, whether animal or vegetal, can resist a temperature of 167° F., and that none survive one of 212° F., even for a minute (I. 313, 314). Vibriones are killed in fluid at 130° - 134° F. (I. 318). All minute organisms have been killed at 140° F. (I. 429). The test adopted, consequently, has been to heat a fluid solution to a temperature above that which organisms can resist, to seal up the flasks, maintain them when cooled at the temperature needed for generation of life, namely from 75° - 86° F., and watch the results. A number of experiments are detailed where solutions of hay, mutton, beef, and other substances, have been heated to 212° F., and afterwards have yielded organisms (I. 355-372). Other such experiments were successful when the preliminary heat was raised to from 242° F. to 270° , 275° , 284° , 293° , 295° , and as much as 307° F. (I. 435-451). Bacteria and Torulæ are destroyed at 140° F. after ten minutes, and at 125° F. after four hours, and yet living organisms are obtained from solutions which have been kept at 270° , 293° , and 295° - 307° F. for four hours (I. 474). Bacteria are short staff-like bodies considered to be neither animal nor vegetal organisms, but plastide-particles capable of development into living forms (I. 270). Torulæ are an advance upon these, being cellular (I. 281). Vibriones are still more advanced in structure. They are long jointed bodies developed apparently from Bacteria (I. 274, 275). Protambæ and Ciliated Monads which are animal forms, and perish at a heat of 140° F., have been produced in fluid that has been heated to 270° - 275° F. (I. 475). Experiments where the heat had been raised to 295° - 307° F., were in some instances fertile, and in some infertile (I. 456-468). One of the infertile solutions left open, and therefore accessible to germs, for a week, still displayed no organisms, showing that success depended upon the ingredients, and that the heat had so altered their quality as to have rendered them incapable of producing life (I. 459 note). Solutions heated to 327° - 464° F. were wholly infertile (I. 469).

When organized matter is decomposed, monads, or moving

specks, and the staff-like bodies called Bacteria, first show themselves. Other forms, which are spherical or oval, and attached together as necklaces, will appear. Also the long jointed bodies called Vibriones. Later, *Leptothrix* filaments and Fungus spores will be produced (I. 267-277). After a time the Bacteria accumulate at the surface of the solution, and become motionless, being surrounded by a thin pellucid and almost jelly-like stratum. This pellicle gradually increases in thickness. Sometimes it breaks up and sinks to the bottom, and a more durable one may be formed. Or there may be no pellicle, but only flocculi, which after a time sink to the bottom. *Torulæ* cells will then appear. These multiply and remain motionless in groups (I. 278-283). Afterwards they develop into filaments (I. 292). Some of these produce bud-like spores. Then *Protambæ* and active Monads, which are animals, make their appearance (I. 441-444).

All bodies are made up of molecules. Simple substances are aggregates of similar atoms. Still more complex bodies will be formed of complex molecules. The process that occurs in the growth and variation of crystalline bodies is the same with colloidal bodies (II. 51, 52). Every germ, vegetal or animal, gradually ceases to be uniform. Minute structures arise which increase till different organs slowly appear (II. 124, 125).

The success of the experiment varies with the strength and character of the solution. Cheese added to an infusion of turnips produced marked results (I. 430 note). On varying the solutions the results varied, some of the experiments being sterile (I. 445, 446). In some solutions Bacteria prevail, and in some *Torulæ*. Acid and saline solutions favour *Torulæ*, putrescible ones Bacteria, and when impaired by heat nothing may be engendered but *Torulæ*. Bacteria and *Torulæ* appear in the same solution. Change the fluid and the forms change, as in the instance of crystals. Both may grow into Fungi (II. 143-146.) Iron introduced will develop green protoplasm, and unfold into *Algæ* (II. 158, 159).

There is no radical difference between Fungi and *Algæ*. The evolution of one or the other depends on the constituents

present (II. 158). The relationship between Fungi and Lichens is even closer. That between Algæ and Lichens is just as close (II. 159). Heat and drought are favourable to Lichens, and damp to Algæ and Mosses, which are interchangeable forms (II. 164). From a single Lichen, under varying conditions of growth, will be produced twenty-three forms of what hitherto have been regarded as fresh-water Algæ. And these Algoid forms may have other totally different modes of origin. The Alga called Nostoc is produced from the Lichen called Collema. This occurs in different modes, and the Nostoc can change back into the Collema. Nostocs also come from other Lichens. No vegetable products are more liable to variation than Lichens. And there is the probability, from the circumstances of their growth, that mosses are produced from these complex sources (Appendix lvii.-lix.).

Most singular transformations are undergone by the Infusoria, vegetable forms changing into animal, and animal into vegetable. Bacteria, Vibriones, Leptotherices, Torulæ, Protambæ, Flagellated Monads, having animal constitutions, and Algoid filaments, are proved to be interchangeable forms (II. 162). An Amæba and a Fungus may interchange forms. Variation of the heat to which the infusions are subjected effects the alterations, a low degree favouring the production of the Monad, Amæba, and animalized forms (II. 231, 234). Fungi, Algæ, Lichens, and Mosses, constantly give birth to animal forms, such as Amæbæ, Monads, and Ciliated Infusoria (II. 434). The beautiful green Astasiæ and Euglenæ which occur in stagnant waters may produce the most varied animal and vegetal forms. Euglenæ have developed into Fungus-germs, Flagellated Monads or Zoospores, Diatoms, Algoid Corpuscles, Bacteria, Desmids, Pediatreæ, Algal filament, and Moss-germs (II. 434-453). Also into more decided animal forms, such as Amæbæ, Actinophrys, Ciliated Infusoria, Rotifers, Tardigrades, and Hematoids (II. 457-466). Algæ will give forth Ciliated Infusoria, and Vorticellæ. From the cells of Chara will come Monads, Amæbæ, Keronæ, Vorticellæ, Actinophrys, and Rotifers, which become the prey of other Infusoria (II. 467-479). A Vorticella and an Oxytricha may result from two contiguous Euglenæ or other Algoid vesicles.

Kerona Pustulata have given rise to *Plasconia Charon* (II. 495, 497). *Actinophrys* and Ciliated Infusoria may come from vegetal matter. The vesicles of *Volvox Globator* have been transformed into Rotifers. Rotifers are also evolved from Algid matrices (II. 506-510). *Euglenæ* are converted into Rotifers, Tardigrades, or Nematoids (II. 525). Water mites, or *Acari*, and ciliated embryos of *Naïdes*, are produced from the *Nitella* (II. 540). Mosses will generate free moving *Amæbæ* and living Zoospores, each with two cilia (App. lxxii.). From Liverworts will come *Spermatozoids*, such as *Spirillum* and *Vibrio*, from which there may appear *Monas Corpusculum*; and this is again transformed into *Amæbæ*, and from the latter will be evolved the vegetal *Algæ*. These forms invariably maintain the succession described (App. lxxiii.-lxxv.). The lower Fungi are for half their life-history in an *Amæboid* condition, being then regarded as animals rather than Fungi. Zoospores are also produced from Fungi. Active Flagelliferous Zoospores come from potato mould, and there is such an intimate connection between animal and vegetable life that there are organisms of which it cannot be judged to which kingdom they belong. One and the same being may at one time exhibit the vital phenomena of an animal, and at another those of a plant (App. lxxix-lxxxi.).

A practical student of nature has been good enough to make me the following interesting communication. "Nothing," he says, "in all my studies is so wonderful to me as to watch the rapid powers of locomotion possessed by the vegetable animalcules under the splendid microscope I have. The *Volvox* looks like a round moon studded with emeralds, and is in perpetual motion, rotating, and darting about as if in search of prey. The motion is caused by its cilia, most minute hairs, which I can clearly see only with my $\frac{1}{4}$ glass, giving about eighteen millions of magnifying power. These cilia are like a corn field in the wind, and propel the *Volvox* through the water. The green spots on its surface are its spores, which it casts, and each becomes a living *Volvox*. Then the *Vorticella* (also a vegetable), is like a beautiful flower covered with waving cilia attached to a long stalk. This stalk contracts itself into a spiral form which it suddenly darts out to its full length, while the flower contracts as if in

the act of catching a monad, and the stalk as instantly collapses into its spiral form. I have seen these objects swimming about after prey, and it is difficult to imagine that they have not animal consciousness of what they are doing. So also with nearly all the organisms, which we are quite certain are vegetable. Thus life is but one in its essence, but where the animal begins and the vegetable ends, we can hardly tell at this moment."

The filaments of *Oscillatoria Tenuis* develop into perfect *Euglenæ*, from which come animalcules of two kinds. Then come *Leptothrix* filaments, after which young *Oscillatoria* again appear (Bastian, II. App. lxxxiii., lxxxiv.). *Euglenæ* and *Astasiæ* are capable of giving rise both to animals and plants, under the influence of varying conditions. One half of the same specimen may go one way, and one half the other. *Euglenæ* may produce *Confervæ* and Mosses, or else animals such as Rotifers, Nematoids, and Tardigrades. And as side products they will give *Desmidæ*, *Diatomaceæ*, *Zygnemixæ*, and nearly all the vesicular Infusoria. The larger *Euglenæ* are the common matrix of all the known forms of Infusoria, and the absence of light promotes the production of animals rather than plants. The smaller *Euglenæ* have not equal capacity for evolving animal products. The *Volvox Globator* as well as *Euglenæ* give rise to *Amæbæ* (App. lxxxv.-lxxxvii., xc.). An *Astasia* will become an *Amæba* and an *Amæba* an *Astasia* (App. lxxxix.). The greater number of the Infusoria reduce themselves, when the conditions are not favourable to another mode of development, into *Amæbæ*, and if an infusorial animalcule happens to reproduce itself by germs, it is always in the state of a Monad, which is the primitive form of the *Amæbæ* (App. xc.). *Pseudo-Navicellæ* are derived from *Gregarinæ*, and then become *Amæbæ*, and the *Amæbæ* become *Gregarinæ* (App. xci.). The *Amæba* often assumes the radiated form of the *Actinophrys* (App. xciii.) The *Actinophrys Sol* is developed into a *Vorticella*, and *Vorticella* into *Acenita*. Again the *Vorticella* is converted into an *Actinophrys* or a *Podophrya*, and ends by becoming again a *Vorticella* (App. xcv., xcvi.).

The animal organisms undergo strange transformations among themselves. When two or more *Amæbæ* come into contact, they may fuse together so as to form a larger individual

of the same kind, which creeps about and seizes food as its components had previously done. Fusions also occur between other units, producing dissimilar forms. The pellicle is a vehicle for such changes (II. 193, 194). The *Amæba* may become a *Monad*, or a *Monad* an *Amæba* (II. 231). *Monads*, *Actinophrys*, *Peranemata*, *Amæbæ*, and *Fungus-germs*, frequently proceed from contiguous portions of the same matter, and are interchangeable with one another (II. 492). Among *Ciliated Infusoria*, *Vorticella* have been metamorphosed into *Oxytricha*, and *Oxytricha* into *Trichoda* (II. 493). These *Infusoria*, after a life of great activity, during which by fission and gemmation they give birth to creatures similar to themselves, encyst themselves, and so pass out from themselves other forms. In this manner *Monads*, *Amæbæ*, and *Rotifers* may be produced (II. 500, 501). A *Rotifer* will develop into a very vigorous and most voracious *Actinophrys*, which acquires considerable dimensions. And an *Actinophrys* may become a *Rotifer*, a *Nematoid*, or a *Tardigrade*. An *Actinophrys*, again, will become spheroidal, and change into a *Ciliated Planariæ*. This increases in size, and leads a very active life for about ten days, when it is encysted, and then through an embryo form becomes one of the *Tardigrades* (II. 523, 524). *Amæbæ*, *Monads*, *Ciliated Infusoria*, *Rotifers*, and *Nematoids*, are convertible into one another (II. 558). A *Rotifer* may be produced direct from a large *Euglena*, or a large mass of protoplasm and chlorophyll separating from the wall of a *Nitella*-filament; but should the *Nitella* mass or *Euglena* be small, there will be a succession of transformations to an *Actinophrys*, an *Amæba*, and a *Ciliated Infusorium*, before the *Rotifer* emerges. The *Medusæ* and *Distomata* also come forth direct when the eggs are large, and when small they appear through intermediate forms (II. 570, 571). "It is much to be desired," observes Dr Carpenter, "that observers should devote themselves to the study of even the commonest and best known forms of animalcules, since there is not a single one whose entire life history from one generative act to another is known to us" (*On the Microscope*, 482).

The processes now described forbid the idea of germ generation. When the same organic substances are found producing dissimilar forms, and these interchanging with one

another backwards and forwards; one sort of vegetation convertible into another sort; vegetal changing into animal life, and animal life into vegetal; one form of animal altering into another form, and reverting afterwards to its first form, with sometimes a chain of transformations of animal forms in established recurring succession,—it is apparent that alterations wrought on the components by influences affecting them, give rise to the forms and their changes, and not an ever-varying supply of germs, for which, moreover, the sealed flasks give no means of access.

The rule that sexual intercourse is ordinarily necessary to reproduction lies at the root of the assertion of the opposite germ theory. But this rule we know is not an absolute one. Propagation by fission and gemmation, where it takes place, affords evidence of perfect forms being introduced without the operation of the sexes. Dr Bastian's facts give to asexual operations a wider scope than hitherto has been observed and acknowledged, and show that the one system, by advanced developments, passes into the other. Even fertile germs, it appears, are induced asexually. Ciliated Infusoria are produced by fission, and more rarely by gemmation; but they also spring from embryos formed out of nucleated substances, and germs created in the tissues of the organisms (App. xcvi. c., ci., civ.). Nematoids, which are a species of worm, are at first sexless, and afterwards are constituted as males and females. Dr Bastian gives the drawing of a female Nematoid which had been produced from the plant *Euglena* with eggs within her (II. 525, 527). Rotifers and Tardigrades, animals which come from tufts of Moss and Lichen, multiply their species by eggs. These eggs, as also those of the Nematoid, are large, and are never discernible in the atmosphere (II. 535 and note, 536-538). Acari, as well as Nematoids, are produced without sexual contact, and afterwards display the sexual forms perfectly (II. 551). *Amæbæ*, Monads, and Ciliated Infusoria, equally as Rotifers and Nematoids, eventually multiply their kind sexually (II. 558). There are plants which give forth products sexually and asexually in alternation. Among animal forms the Aphides are so circumstanced. From the fertilized eggs of perfect females will come imperfect females, the births

from which will be viviparous, and after a time oviparous births will occur. Lepidopterae, Psychidæ, and Tineidæ have produce without contact with males, none of which have ever been found (Herbert Spencer, I. 211, 214, 215). There are hermaphrodite plants and animals. These, as a rule, do not fertilize themselves, but pair with others (*Ibid.* I. 278). When the sexes have been established, and propagation is carried on through this means, the laws of heredity come into operation, a conservative principle is introduced, and the forms become less subject to variation (Bastian, II. 101, 607, 637).

The operations of nature, and above all the great question how animated forms were first produced, attracted much attention in early days. The cosmogonies and mythologies then current were projected in the endeavour to solve or elucidate the difficult problems which the existence of all things around offered to view. Anaxagoras of Clazomenæ (B.C. 530) considered that all matter was penetrated by "an immaterial spirit (*νοῦς*) whose action produced order and harmony in chaos." "This spirit he did not regard as divine." It was "the principle of life, diffused throughout the world, energizing nature, intelligent, individual, wise. By it the world was not created, but was moulded out of pre-existing material" (Baring-Gould, *Origin and Development of Religious Belief*, 298, 299). Plato (B.C. 390), exalting God as incorporeal and incomprehensible, attributed creation to a Demiurg, who "made the universe out of pre-existing material, according to the ideas of good projected upon matter" (*Ibid.* 302, 303). The legend of Cronus emasculating his sire Uranus, with which the birth of Aphrodite, the goddess of propagation is connected, has been viewed by Macrobius, (a writer of the fifth century,) as indicating "that, after the finite world was completed in all its parts, the productive or creative influences which had descended from the heavens on the earth and had called forth new creatures into being, were cut off, or entirely ceased; and that the maintenance of animal and vegetable nature was thenceforth supported by another method, viz., by that of propagation" (Prichard, *Egyp. Myth.*, 26, 27). These ancient speculations fall in very remarkably with the theory

I am led by the results of modern investigations to advance, namely, that all forms have been composed originally out of the surrounding elements, and when established persistently are constituted to continue themselves by sexual generation.

The early inquirers looked on life as a consequence of organization. Their thought was that the frame was first fashioned out in all its parts, and life then imparted to it. But the processes we witness in the production of Infusoria, show the reverse to be the method (Bastian, I. 59, 169, 170). Life takes effect upon a formless substance, which is termed Protoplasm; but how what is lifeless becomes imbued with life, we are unable to discern (*Ibid.* 128, 153). Philosophers do not pretend to explain the mode of connection of spirit and matter. They only allege their inseparability (Büchner, *Force and Matter*, Pref. to third ed. xxvi). "Life in its inmost relations is certainly a book with seven seals—riddle upon riddle." We only skim its surface. It originates from a conjoint action of chemical and physical forces (*Ibid.* Pref. to fourth ed. lii). The non-living particle, observes Professor Huxley, is inert, the living particle exhibits endless action. "What," he asks, "is the cause of this wonderful difference between the dead particle and the living particle of matter appearing in other respects identical? that difference to which we give the name of Life? I, for one, cannot tell you. It may be that, by and by, philosophers will discover some higher laws of which the facts of life are particular cases—very possibly they will find out some bond between physico-chemical phenomena on the one hand, and vital phenomena on the other. At present, however, we assuredly know of none" (*Lay Sermons*, 76). Then he describes the earliest living substance that is discernible. In a drop of blood, by means of a microscope, will be seen innumerable little coloured corpuscles, which give the colour to the blood, and a smaller number of colourless corpuscles, which are rather larger in size and of irregular shape. These, if kept to the temperature of the body, exhibit a marvellous activity, "changing their forms with great rapidity, drawing in and thrusting out prolongations of their substance, and creeping about as if they were independent organisms." This substance is the protoplasm. It is found in the skin, the lining

of the mouth, and throughout the whole frame-work of the body. The earliest development of the embryo is an aggregation of such corpuscles, and "every organ of the body was, once, no more than such an aggregation." Thus a nucleated mass of protoplasm is the structural unit, by a repetition of which, variously modified, the human and all other animated bodies are built up. "Beast and fowl, reptile and fish, mollusc, worm, and polype, are all composed of structural units of the same character, namely, masses of protoplasm with a nucleus." "What has been said of the animal world is no less true of plants. . . . Protoplasm, simple or nucleated, is the formal basis of all life. It is the clay of the potter. . . . Thus it becomes clear that all living powers are cognate, and all living forms are fundamentally of one character. . . . Carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen, . . . when they are brought together, under certain conditions, give rise to the still more complex body, protoplasm, and this protoplasm exhibits the phenomena of life" (*Ibid.* 126-129, 135). Life introduced by means of this plastic protoplasm works out in the system its destined form, and fresh supplies of matter are continually taken in and vitalized, and assimilated to nourish the organism and repair waste. But how the first adhesion of life occurs, or how the process of nutrition is effected, are beyond the limits of our observation (Bastian, I. 55 ; II. 26). All chemical changes are equally inexplicable. It is unknown why oxygen unites with hydrogen to form water, and hydrogen with nitrogen to form ammonia (*Ibid.* II. 26, 27).

"The proximity of physical masses does not explain gravitation; the existence of animal or vegetable principles in an organic form in no measure explains the phenomenon of life. The flow of nervous fluid from the brain does not explain thought; the act of volition does not explain muscular movement, neither does the flow of nervous electricity explain it" (R. S. Wyld, *The World as Dynamical and Immaterial*, 16). "When we look about us towards external objects, and consider the operation of causes, we are never able, in a single instance, to discover any power or necessary connection, any quality which binds the effect to the cause, and renders the one an infallible consequence of the other. We only find

that the one does actually in fact follow the other" (Hume, *Essay on the Human Understanding*, 44).

The experiments made with infusions in flasks represent, in miniature operations, the same in kind carried on with vast results in ponds, lakes, rivers, and ocean beds, and in all places exposed to humidity (Bastian, I. 431; II. 162). Still, only the very lowest forms of vegetation and animals are embraced in these operations. The question is, have the higher forms been similarly produced?

Our familiar experience of life evolved from germs and embryonic forms, generated by the means of sexual intercourse, gives us the rule of reproduction governing the existing species; but it will not account for the first introduction of these species, which necessarily was effected without antecedent parentage. The higher Infusoria also, we have seen, are finally brought under the law of heredity; and yet we know that there was a time when they were composed and endowed with life without the intervention of parents. In their instance, the germ is not a primitive necessity, but the result of a secondary condition. Fact and theory are here not in discord; but we must be careful to discriminate the nature of the fact. There could be no operative germ without a preceding germ producer; and in the Infusoria we see how the germ product is brought about without sexually constituted parentage. Nor is any other rule for the primitive production of the embryonically constituted germ conceivable. We are warranted, then, in concluding that the superior races may have in like manner been brought into being. The causes that have served to introduce the Infusoria, we are warranted in supposing, may be those likewise to which the higher orders owe their primitive existence, their law of sexual reproduction becoming established among them when, as with these Infusoria, they had attained their ultimate perfected forms. "Spontaneous generation played, no doubt, a more important part in the primeval epoch than at present; nor can it be denied that in this way beings of a higher organization were produced than now" (Büchner, *Force and Matter*, 84). The elements of all are the same, gathered similarly out of earth, water, and air; and, on decomposition, the constituents of even the highest forms afford materials for the organization of the lowest of the Infusoria. There is nothing,

then, in point of constitution, that essentially divides or distinguishes these classes. All are put together with the universal protoplasm, compounded from similar materials. The phenomena of life, together with the processes of development, nutrition, and decay, are the same in all. If the passage from asexual to sexual production is bridged over in the instance of the Infusoria, may it not equally have been bridged over in that of the higher forms? The powers in operation are illimitable; and a proportionate magnifying of the powers might produce results of any degree of consequence. Those conditions which bring into being the minutest filament, or the microscopic jelly speck, would, if adequately increased in scope and potency, generate a fungus of any dimensions, or a jelly fish. We, in fact, witness the growth of considerable fungi (mushrooms) without germ origin. What causes diminutive articulations, operating on a larger scale might lead to structures of any ascending size. To draw any line, as an impassable one, in these operations, is not possible. The beginnings of form have continually been given forth. Geologic remains exhibit a constant succession of changes wrought in animated nature. Species after species have been gradually withdrawn, and fresh species introduced. The operations sometimes have been on a scale to represent new eras of creation. The carboniferous and cretaceous systems are of this order, as also are the gigantic saurians of the Oolitic period, and the huge mammals of the Tertiary.

The system prevailing in the production of the Infusoria affords us another important guide in apprehending what the general processes of creation may have been. There are doubtless numerous transformations occurring among them, but the rule is a multitude of independent forms simultaneously generated, and of very various shapes. As broad and as scattered as the stagnant waters may be in which these operations are carried on, so surely will every corner thereof, in all places, teem at once with life. The ocean beds, we find, swarm in breadths of hundreds of miles with animated beings engendered all together. Fungi, lichen, and mosses, with magic celerity, cover all surfaces appropriate to them. Grass and herbage of all sorts spring into being simultaneously in all suitable regions; and the vast forest growths occur all

together. Are we to think that the rule operating in the instance of all the Infusoria, and of all vegetation, small and great, is not the rule that occurred when the higher forms of animal life were introduced to stock the globe? "Is it reasonable to suppose the Almighty would have created one seed of grass, one acorn, one pair of locusts, of bees, of wild pigeons, of herrings, of buffaloes, as the only starting-point of these almost ubiquitous species?" (*Types of Mankind*, 73, 74). Professor Agassiz, in respect of the beasts of prey which have to depend on animal food, asks the pertinent question, "Was the first pair of lions to abstain from food until the gazelles and other antelopes had multiplied sufficiently to preserve their races from the persecution (to extermination) of these ferocious beasts?" (Ibid. 74). This is a very extensive daily need, not only on the part of the carnivorous mammals, but of the multitudinous birds, fishes, and reptiles that have to seek their supplies by feeding on other creatures. The whale alone takes in myriads of molluscs at a mouthful. The fair conclusion is, that what we see to occur in respect of the Infusoria, and the plants in general, is the method that has been taken in respect of the rest of the animated creation.

The constituting elements have everywhere abounded, ready to be brought into combination whenever acted upon by the equally present powers of nature. Have those which operate with such prolific effect in bringing the lower forms into existence, been placed under the closest limitations when the higher forms had to be evolved? The various centres occupied by peculiar products, many of which could not exist but in such centres, involve independent creations. The marsupials of Australia, and the sloths and armadillos of South America, must have been raised up each in their proper regions. In parallel latitudes in Australia, South Africa, and Western South America, the faunas and floras are of a character than which nothing could be more utterly dissimilar (Darwin, *Origin of Species*, 377). Natural barriers of any kind, or whatever impedes free migration, serve to create spheres of distinctive creations. For example, the products of the New World stand thus distinguished from those of the Old. In the seas on each side of America there is hardly a fish, shell, or crab in common, though separated only by the narrow

isthmus of Panama. There is not a single mammal common to Europe and Australia or South America. There is a great difference in the marine faunas on the opposite sides of almost every continent (Ibid. 377, 378, 382, 388). There is evidence of separate creations, where, on the other hand, similar products are found in distant, unapproachable localities. On mountain summits, such as those of the Alps, the Pyrenees, and the White Mountains of the United States of America, there is an identity of plants and animals, with wide intervening lowlands, where none such could exist. On the lofty mountains of equatorial America, on the highest mountains of Brazil, on those of Abyssinia, on the Himalaya, on the uplands of Ceylon, the volcanic cones of Java, the mountains of South Australia, and of New Zealand, are plants common to Europe (Ibid. 395, 405). The trout north of the Alps are identical with those south of the Alps, with insurmountable ridges between them. In like manner, the chamois of the Pyrenees are the same as those of the Alps, with plains dividing them impassable to such animals (Vogt, *Lectures on Man*, 216). The whalebone whales of the Arctic and the Antarctic seas are alike, having the waters of the torrid zone lying between them, which, observes Lieut. Maury, are "as a sea of fire, through which they could not pass" (Murray, *Geographical Distribution of Mammals*, 209). Wherever new countries have been discovered, through the remotest antiquity, in every region, except in small islands, strange races of men have been met with already in occupation, besides the stocks of inferior animals and plants (Vogt, 423; *Types of Mankind*, lxviii.). When America was discovered, between three and four centuries ago, the whole region, from the Arctic zone to Cape Horn, and from ocean to ocean, was found inhabited by populations dissimilar as to physical traits from any races of the Old World, speaking languages bearing no resemblance in structure to other known languages, and with animals and plants specifically distinct from those of Europe, Asia, Africa, and Oceana (*Types of Mankind*, 274). Mr Darwin, while accounting for all varieties of the animal creation as descended by transmutation from some one primitive, humble, organism, in contemplating the occupation of all parts of the earth, however divided by mountains or oceans, with their respective

fauna and flora, makes the concession, "We are often wholly unable to conjecture how this could have been effected" (*Origin of Species*, 495). Mr St George Mivart points to what is, in fact, the only escape from the dilemma. All geographical difficulties, he observes, would disappear, if we could concede the independent formation, in different regions, of all the organic frames, however high in the scale of nature, equally as may be conceded as to the Infusoria (*Gen. of Species*, 172).

The lesson appears thus consistent and complete on every side. The way in which the Infusoria are daily brought into being in all parts of the world, is evidence of a method of primitive generation, the limits of which it is arbitrary to confine to them alone; and the existence everywhere, in all regions, and at all times, of higher organizations, including man, in localities between which no means of transmission can be conceived, some with special constitutions disabling them from living elsewhere than where they appear, admits of no other explanation than that they were generated where found; whereby we seem driven to conclude that what the laboratory of nature works out, from surrounding materials, before our eyes, on a small scale, has been worked out, in past times, on a much larger one, to the creation on one footing as to method, as it indisputably has been as to material, of all the animal structures the world has possessed, the most important as well as the lowest.

When we cast our eyes abroad upon the universe, we appear to have before us, in the grandest proportions, just such an exhibition of the powers of nature operating for the development of ulterior forms, as we see exercised, in the minutest, in the production of the infusoria. The construction of the heavenly orbs from nebulous matter is a theory that receives support from the revelations of the spectroscope. "Some among the nebulae manifest, under the spectroscope, the same lines as the fixed stars; others, however, are recognizable, by the lines of their spectra, as glowing gaseous masses. The importance of this discovery for our cosmogonic theory is self-evident. It actually proves the truth of our previous assumption that boundless space contains not only completed worlds, but such as are only in process of formation, or only just developing out of a gaseous state" (Strauss, *The*

Old Faith and the New, 188). That is, the indeterminate gases, floating in the measureless ether, are being collected and solidified into specific forms, having specific uses and functions, just as organized objects are constructed on earth mainly from the gases in our circumambient ether. The nebula in Canes Venatici (Guillemin, Fig. 156) affords an illustration of the apparent process. A rotating mass of nebulous matter is observable whirling round in a spiral form, having a globe seemingly forming in its centre or nucleus, and another being consolidated and cast off at its outer extremity. Similar exhibitions are given in the nebulae in Virgo, Leo, and Pegasus (Fig. 157, 158), and the number of such observed phenomena is an increasing one. "We have noted forty spiral nebulae, and thirty more in which this form is suspected (Guillemin, 403). Small brilliant stars are mixed in with these nebulae, which probably do not belong to their systems, but lie beyond them, and are visible through them. Viewing the whole immeasurable expanse of the universe as sown with these globes, some under process of construction out of the prior formless nebulous matter, and some fully developed and holding their appointed courses, what have we but an exhibition, on a stupendous scale, of what is observable in a drop of stagnant water, where unformed matter is being composed into minute jelly specks, and other more advanced organized shapes ?

The theory of Mr Darwin, which has met with so much attention, does not consist with the facts on which I have been building. He supposes that the various forms of life have been derived from one another, through graduated changes, so that the whole may at length be traced back to some one very humble primitive organization. But in the generation of the Infusoria we see, daily, multitudes of very diverse forms brought into being, not necessarily derivatively, but also simultaneously and independently ; and the stocking of the whole globe, in all its parts, however unapproachably separated, with appropriate flora and fauna, also speaks of independent and not derivative creation.

Mr Darwin's theory labours also under other serious objections of a character that should be fatal to it. He has to beg his way at every stage, and, the necessary facts being wanting, to

raise his system ever upon supposititious foundations. He wishes us to disallow any real distinction between varieties and species (*Origin of Species*, 3d ed. 54, 59, 61), while the laws of hybridism ever place an effectual barrier between violent intermixtures, thus marking the distinctiveness of species. Either from want of adaptation, or from aversion, the species do not cross with one another, or, if they do, and have a progeny, it is infertile. Varieties, on the other hand, intermix freely, and have fertile and even improving offspring. But if species are only varieties, then Mr Darwin hopes to make it clear that because we may effect a hundred varieties of apples, or of pigeons, an apple may be transformed into a pear, or a pigeon into a crow, and so onwards from stage to stage of conversion. The intermediate shapes are wanting, and, conveniently, he supposes them to have been exterminated (194), and not even adequately preserved in fossilized condition (197). The close gradation of shapes has convinced him that the ape is the nearest link to man at the ultimate end of the chain, the ascidian being the first approximation to the vertebrates at the other end. But if all come from a primeval germ, and gradation of shape is to rule the conclusions, he must link on the vegetable kingdom to the animal, and even the mineral to the vegetable, the lines between these various orders being indefinable. His great instrument of change is what he terms natural selection, or the object seeking to better itself. In this way fins may become legs or wings, as instanced by the penguin helping itself along upon shore with its water propellers, and the flying fish darting out of water and sustaining itself in the air by the spread of its lateral fins (200, 201). We are entitled to figure to ourselves interminable generations of fishes struggling to clamber upon land, until at last some advanced specimens succeed, and, gradually controlling their gaspings, accustom themselves to prolong life on shore; after which, exercising, with intent at improvement, their ill adapted members, they end by developing these into well-jointed limbs; and whisking their scaly tails about, eventually fringe them with hair! But there are still stranger conversions to imagine, as of an oyster into a peacock, or of a midge into an elephant. Certainly how

so complicated an organ as the eye can have been produced, on such a principle as self-improvement, confessedly baffles conjecture; but still, to avoid shipwreck, Mr Darwin has to suppose such a result possible (205-209). Then, in some instances, the process of change involves retrogression, not progress. Mr Darwin's ascidian, for example, begins life as a free moving animal, and ends by becoming a plant-like object fixed to a rock like a polype. And through what propensities a stately oak, spreading its branches to the winds of heaven, should dwindle into the humble water-buried ascidian, it is impossible to conceive, though the change is unavoidable on the supposition of all forms being traceable to a primeval germ. Every parasitical object has necessarily come into being after the production of the form on which it feeds. Is it by transition that we find on man the *pediculus* which nourishes itself upon him? Mr Darwin and his admirers afford us no replies to these awkward questions.

Dr Strauss is one among the many in the ranks of the learned who have accepted Mr Darwin's theory. He thus endeavours to illustrate the development of form through the operation of the instincts and habits of the animal itself. "Let us suppose," he says, "a herd of cattle of primeval time to be still destitute of horns—only possessed of powerful necks and protruding foreheads. The herd is attacked by beasts of prey; it defends itself by running against them and butting with the head. This butting will be the more vigorous, the bull the fitter to resist the beasts of prey, the harder the forehead with which he butts. Should this hardening in any individual have developed to an incipient horny accretion, then such an individual would have the best chance of preserving its existence. If the less well-equipped bulls of such a herd were torn to pieces, then the individual thus equipped would propagate the species" (*The Old Faith and the New*, 217, 218). It will be observed how determined the process of begging resorted to in view to establish the required results. But are they established? We may have the thickening of the frontal bone, and the production on it of excrescences. But why are these latter, in their ultimate development, ever confined to a pair correspondently arranged, tapering to points as if constructed under an artist's eye? We might look not for

two, but twenty such developments, forming a regular *cheval de frise*. Why do we never even see the fabled unicorn? How is it that elephants, the most violent butters in the world, have their horns, (so to call them,) growing out of their mouths, and not from their foreheads? Can the beautiful convoluted ornaments on the head of the antelope, or the complicated branching antlers of the stag or reindeer, many pointed, with each point on the one horn matched by a similar one on the other, be possibly due to the art of butting? The butting would splinter off the branches, but assuredly not favour their symmetrical growth?

It is a great problem what may be the power by which the processes of creation are effected. We see them carried out by means of unerring laws, acting upon materials constituted with unvarying properties. As certainly as stated influences are brought into play, so surely do particular effects follow. Are the laws all sufficient for their purposes? Or is there some ultimate designing and governing power putting the whole into operation, and directing every result to its pre-arranged ends? In admitting matter, with its inherent properties, to be eternal, are we necessarily to conclude that its apparently self-existent atoms are endowed with independent action, subject only to the unalterable laws ever influencing them in their combined relations? Is it possible that without a propeller or governor they should have not only action, but concerted action? Finite although our knowledge, our thoughts are ever stretching to the contemplation of the infinite. And when we find the cause of life lying out of the reach of our perceptions; when every natural phenomenon is the result of some operation the root of which we are unable to discern; when every thing is ordered in the expression of design, and adaptibility of means to ends, with a perfection and success immeasurably beyond our faculties to devise or accomplish,—what legitimate conclusion can be drawn but that there is some unseen unerring power, existing beyond all we know of physical nature, effecting everything?

The scheme of creation directs us by analogy to a like conclusion. In every observable direction centralization is the rule maintained. The planetary system, in which we stand, has its governing orb, controuling, influencing, and vivifying

all the members of the community. This group is one of myriads of other such groups, constituted together ; and all, it is thought, are circling round some common centre in appointed order. The earth has its proper sphere of function, generating all things pertaining to it, by resources drawn from its interior, its exposed superficies, and the surrounding atmosphere ; and by a binding power belonging to it, it holds all in their places on its surface. Every organized object on the earth, vegetal or animal, has equally its governing centre. The rootlets of the plants draw up the needed nourishment ; the leaves expand and imbibe their appropriate supplies. Every particle responds to its uses for the benefit of the aggregate whole. It is as if an inner chieftain governed and directed every operation for the advantage of the corporate body. In all the animated creation this directing centre of the system is made very apparent. The component atoms constituting their forms are infinite in their number and varied distribution, but there is a marshalling power in each organized structure, making every part work together for the good of the whole. The life and well-being of the individual are carefully guarded, its wants assiduously supplied, its desires satisfied, its wishes obeyed. Some of the operations are executed with consciousness, and some unconsciously. In the human body there may be said to be three centres of rule, the automatic, the animal, and the rational (Wilkinson, *The Human Body and its Connexion with Man*, 17). Many of our functions are carried on through the means of unconscious agency. "The bodily organs, as the liver or the kidneys, require to exercise processes of selection, and acts of composition and elimination, to which nothing less than a stupendous bodily judgment is adequate." Breathing, eating, and walking, are maintained by unconscious operations. The heart, as the supreme organ of the body, has a complete orbit of its own. The brains and nerves are the mental organ. The lungs, an intermediate field, lie between the mental and the bodily organs. But every part contains the rest. The brains, the nerves, the blood-vessels, the liver, are all everywhere. The body is telegraphic, with various stations. The messages are according to the organs ; and there is one fountain-head. "When an impression appeals to it (the brain)

from the body through its quasi-sentient nerves, this mounts to the grey centre to which the nerve carrying the impression belongs ; an instant organic determination then occurs in the centre, a decision takes place, and a motion is sent down through the corresponding motor nerve to the parts which the latter supplies. For example a pinch applied to the leg lodges its complaint at the grey centre, which at once by its nerves sets the muscles and the limb in that motion which enables the part to escape the distress." "The spinal cord acts as if it were a sensible animal, guiding the fingers, for example, to the seats of pain by its automatic endowments" (Wilkinson, 5, 8, 9, 40, 255). The stomach, provided with a valve, subjects the food introduced into it to the chemical action of its gastric secretions, carefully retaining it until it is reduced to a state to be passed forward and assimilated by the system ; and if what is noxious to the body is introduced, with violent efforts it will eject it by the shortest passage ; that is, by the way by which it made its entry. If prejudicial influences should have invaded the body, by means of acute pain, spasms, convulsions, fever, perspiration, rashes, or diarrhœa, the virus will be discharged and the equilibrium restored. If any lesion occurs to the frame, then the proper vessels send forward the appropriate materials to restore the part as far as circumstances will permit. A broken bone is re-united with osseous deposits, lacerated flesh is repaired with fibrous matter, and a fresh cuticle is formed to cicatrize and close-up a wound. The governance exercised from the conscious centres more readily declares itself. From the animal centre flow the emotions and passions, and if these are to have healthy action, they must be directed and controuled by the thought and will proceeding from the rational centre, in which the ultimate dominion over the whole system is consciously exerted as by an enthroned and ever-watchful ruler. To him all the conditions of the corporate body are disclosed ; by him all its powers are known and estimated, all its necessities felt, all its welfare judged of, and all its appointments and courses laid down and effected. In the sense of the supremacy and the directness of this his power, the minor individualities are absorbed in the being of the one identifiable and conscious unit.

If then there is a central governance for every member of the physical creation, for the orbs launched in space, and for the animated forms of which we are conscious on our globe, is it reasonable to suppose that the influences which pervade the universe are represented by so many independent laws, without an intelligence exerted over all to direct these laws to their appropriate ends? If there is no such ruling mind, then are we all the creatures of chance, left to the fortuitous combinations which the insentient elements and powers existent around us may bring about. Such a conclusion should be repelled by every rational mind. The unseen ruler may not himself be discernible, but his acts are everywhere demonstrated. If there is a feature characterizing this creation, it is eminently that every thing connected with it is stamped with proofs of forethought and design. The vast celestial bodies that occupy limitless space, are apparently grouped together in well ordered arrangements of distances and gravities mathematically adjusted. They influence each other, but each holds its measured and appointed course without collision with its neighbours. The movements of all are so precisely regulated as to give us measures of time of the utmost possible practical accuracy, and are so exceedingly rapid as to entail inevitable catastrophes and destructions, but for supreme direction. The adapted forms observable on the face of our globe are beyond computation, and nowhere is there an organized object not properly fitted for the ends of its existence. If every connected atom in each being has its appointed place, and performs its required functions with unerring certainty, much more does the entire organism, in its construction and complicated workings, manifest intelligently directed action; and the individualities, infinite in number, are all framed upon broad principles of universal law, exhibiting at the same time endless but always suitable diversities. To suppose that the whole is due to unintelligent agency, appears a mockery of the understanding.

The combination of the emotional element deepens the testimony which is presented by the perceptive and reflective powers exercised on what surrounds us, and this source affords even a truer sense, to those who profit by it, of the proper aims of our being, than can be attained by the mere contemplation of

the visible creation. The mind so working travels beyond the limits of the outwardly perceptible to fathom what belongs to the unseen. This is no mere effort of the imagination. The introduction is to a field of study, as solid in its realities as any to which the observation of the physical creation can lead. If the outer man is affected by all the conditions to which he is exposed, whether of climate, food, clothing, domicile, occupations, or habits, equally is the inner man susceptible to all moral influences with which he is associated. What he hears from others ; what he learns from books ; what comes to him from his own perception and reflection ; the example of others ; their direct monitions and exhortations ; the lessons of his own self-control ; the course of action to which he commits himself ; the misrule of evil or the rule of good ; the domination or the subjection of the passions ; a heart shut up to a consideration of its own wants, or expanding to supply those of others ; desires centring on things of sense, or in pursuit of spiritual renovation and instruction ; an ambition simply to stand well with fellow-men, or the laying bare every thought and motive to the searching scrutiny of an unseen, ever watchful, and most sensitive, inward monitor ;—all these agencies govern the development of the inward man as sensibly as the physical appliances influence the condition of the outward man. As the infant, at first helpless and altogether dependent on another, gradually acquires strength and stature until advanced to the full-grown proportions and powers of the matured man, so also progress the cultivation and development of man's sentient being—his other, better, and truer self. The whole is one consistent process of creation. Every material and tangible element entering into combination with the physical body, whether it be derived from the globe itself, or from the creatures dwelling on its surface, affects the physical condition, it may be for good, or it may be for evil, according as the eternal laws governing matter are obeyed or set at naught ; and every inner moral application enters equally into the constitution of the moral and spiritual entity, and promotes, or retards, his advancement.

No one can exercise himself in this latter field without having the consciousness of a being beyond him—one above and

outside himself, and yet intimately and inseparably associated with him. If there is a mystery attaching to the constitution of the physical state in the access and the phenomena of life, that root of all power in animated nature, that ultimate and cherished possession to benefit and sustain which every effort of which the individual is capable is directed, so also is there an equally unfathomable root planted in the spiritual man, the cultivation of the relations with which becomes his highest, and in the end absorbing aim. Has he a request to make out of the field of his own possible exertions—he addresses it there; has he a want to meet for which all ordinary resources are insufficient—he there seeks for a supply; is he in danger, sickness, sorrow—thence he looks for deliverance; and who that so exercises his spirit, has found the resource a vain one? Above all, when evil rises within him, when the mind balances between what should be done and what avoided, this helper, when appealed to, is unfailingly present, and his directions and supports are never otherwise than those most suitable to the occasion consciously laid before him. What have we here but the Supreme Creator and Ruler of the whole system,—some power superior to, and independent of, all other powers, intelligently directing them? The contemplation then of the moral field, equally as that of the physical, leads to the conclusion, without which none of the observed phenomena can be adequately accounted for, that the processes of creation, in every branch, in this well ordered and responsive system, are under the appointment and control of a central universal power directing all things in the supremacy of his wisdom, to work together for ends to which he has appointed them.

We may be incompetent to judge fairly of what lies beyond the range of our possible observations. But it is a legitimate, and in fact an unavoidable question, which must present itself to every reflective mind, what is the end of man? Is he confined to the field presented to his physical vision, or do his moral perceptions and desires warrant his looking beyond this to another and superior sphere of existence? He sees that the essences of matter never perish. Is his essence, after conscious identity has been raised up within him, to be dissipated to a condition wherein this identity is to be realized no more? He has the sense of an eternity; is there no

portion therein for him ? He knows of infinity of space ; is he forever held to the narrow bounds around him ? He aims at a standard of excellence higher than the infirmities attaching to his being in this life permit of his attaining ; are these aspirations given to him in vain ? He has placed before him goals of measureless goodness and felicity ; may he never approach them ? Is he gifted with apprehensions, faculties, and desires, the ultimate scope of which may never be arrived at ? Is the existence of the Almighty Ruler of the Universe brought home to him, and his intercourse with him restricted to the fleeting imperfect opportunities of this life ? Conscious of a two-fold nature, the one frail and perishing, the other ever expanding in limitless growth, are the two necessarily to end together ? Is the whole discipline of life, instituted and maintained, as the individual advances to the term of his physical existence, with ever increasing attention, demonstration, and profit, to be disallowed at last by the obliteration of the being so carefully and assiduously cultivated ?

I think if a man will but use the opportunities at his command for observation and reflection, he must come to the conclusion that the course of nature is due to some higher ordering than the mere operations of its governing laws, and that the ultimate sphere of our sentient beings is not restricted to the short, troubled, and comparatively objectless career we have on earth.

II.

THE ANTIQUITY OF THE EARTH AND ITS HUMAN INHABITANTS.

THE crust of the earth being composed of numerous strata, consisting of detritus of older formations and fossilized deposits of vegetal and animal remains, laid down gradually and successively by means of aqueous agency, we have before us a testimony, which all may read and apprehend, to the exceeding age of the globe we occupy. The fact of this vast antiquity, when first disclosed to geological observers, ran counter to prevailing belief, and naturally met with much opposition; but it has established itself against all reasonable objection, and is accepted now, on all sides, as ascertained truth. We have evidence of the prevalence over the whole earth of the ancient Silurian ocean, covering everywhere the primitive granite which was destitute of life. From what earlier stage the earth passed into that condition we can judge only inferentially. The granite and the water being of composite character, must have been produced from the combination of primitive elements, slowly and persistently, as in all observable terrestrial operations. After this, also by slow gradual advances, the passage had to be effected from the inorganic and lifeless to the life-possessing stage. There were then maintained those repeated upheavals and accumulations which raised land above water and introduced terrestrial life. Numberless deposits were continuously laid down until the crust of the earth attained the upper surfaces which are now occupied with every existing form of life. A geological chart presents from forty to fifty strata, distinctively named for the sake of convenience; but as these represent groups of formations, the operations by means of which the strata have been laid down, have been far more numerous. For example,

the coal measures alone embrace several hundred alternated deposits. We have to picture to ourselves a long succession of continuous change and construction to account for the laminated crust of the earth, extending to a computed thickness of ten or twelve miles, for which some inconceivable period of time must be accorded. Layer after layer has been imperceptibly composed out of the decay of pre-existing elements, and brought to its position chiefly by the agency of water; to permit of which, every portion of the earth has been subjected to slow upheavals and depressions, whereby land and water have repeatedly changed places.

"The structural complexities of the earth's crust have arisen through the actions of natural causes. . . . Here and there are pointed out sedimentary deposits now slowly taking place. At this place, it is proved that a shore has been encroached on by the sea to a considerable extent within recorded times; and at another place, an estuary is known to have become shallower within the space of some generations. In one region a general upheaval is going on at the rate of a few feet in a century; while in another region occasional earthquakes are shown to cause slight variations of level. . . . But the changes thus instanced are infinitesimal compared with the aggregate of changes to which the earth's crust testifies, even in its still extant systems of strata. . . . From the small changes now being wrought on the earth's crust by natural agencies, we may legitimately conclude that by such natural agencies acting through vast epochs, all the structural complexities of the earth's crust have been produced" (Herbert Spencer, *Prin. of Bio.*, I. 352).

Mr Darwin observed on the coast line of South America a rise of coast above the epoch of the existing shells of from 400 to 500 feet, and there might, he thought, be a greater rise further inland. He was convinced that the Andes had slowly risen, and that the continent is still rising with extreme slowness. At Guasco, on the coast of Chili, there were seven parallel terraces perfectly level, but with plains of unequal breadth, occurring on both sides of a valley. "Continental elevations, as observed in South America and other parts, seem to act over wide areas with a very uniform force; we may therefore suppose that Continental subsidences act in a

nearly similar manner." There are areas of great extent which have undergone movements of an astonishing uniformity, the bands of elevation and subsidence alternating. In "the Pacific and Indian Oceans we shall find that all the *active volcanoes* occur within *the areas of elevation*. . . . Proofs of recent elevation almost invariably occur where there are active vents; I may instance the West Indies, the Cape de Verdes, Canary Islands, Southern Italy, Sicily, and other places." It can be shown "that the intertropical ocean, throughout more than a hemisphere, may be divided into linear parallel bands, of which the alternate ones have undergone, within a recent period, the opposite movements of elevation and subsidence. . . . The action of volcanoes, and the permanent elevation of land, (including mountain chains,) are parts of the same phenomenon, and due to the same cause" (*Voyages of the Adventure and Beagle*, III., 411, 412, 423, 561, 567, 569, 627).

"So far as we can trace the new modifications in the distribution of land and water, the main feature seems to have been a transference of dry land from the southern to the northern hemisphere,—that is, the submergence of land in the one, and its emergence in the other. Great alternations have taken place, and are constantly taking place in this respect, everywhere. What is now above water was formerly below it, and *vice versa*, and in each hemisphere there are portions intermixed with each other, the one of which is rising and the other sinking. And we can see that both operations are carried on at the same time, and that the one is usually in compensation of the other; although both are intermingled, sometimes a general sinking with partial risings. . . . It is a generally acknowledged principle that important geological revolutions are slow and deliberate, and extend over a long period of time; that the crust of the earth is not perpetually bobbing up and down; and that the oscillations which occur in every part of the globe are mere minor accidents, as it were incidental to the progress of the great movement, and not the great movement itself. They may be compared to the slightly tremulous movement of a man's hand when he heaves his food to head; the real movement is the raising of his hand, its vibration is the incidental. One phase of these

geological mutations is the alternation of bands of elevation and depression. . . . It is matter of fact that the elevation and corresponding depression in the two bands generally lie alongside of each other. . . . It seems a necessary consequence of the elevation of dry land in the northern hemisphere, that a corresponding depression should have taken place somewhere else." The crust of the earth "is both solid and elastic" (Murray, *Geographical Distribution of Mammals*, 25, 27, 28). The rate of alteration in land levels may be as slow, Professor Huxley suggests, as but an inch or two in the course of a century (*Lectures to Working Men*, 35).

Various indications of time are drawn from features observable on the earth's surface, which help the mind to apprehend in some measure the exceeding lengthened periods required for the remoter operations traceable in the lower depths of the earth's crust, in the shape of vast accumulations and transpositions.

The ages of certain trees may be calculated by the number of their concentric rings of annual growth. A cypress tree near the city of Mexico, of eighteen feet diameter, has been estimated as 3240 years old (*Dates and Data*, 62). A baobab tree of Senegal, measuring thirty feet in diameter, is thought to be 5150 years old; and a taxodium of Mexico, measuring one hundred and seventeen feet in girth, is computed at 6660 years (Lyell, *Prin. of Geo.*, II., 44, 45; *Dates and Data*, 61).

The sediment of the Nile, measured at the statue of Rameses II. at Memphis, was found to have accumulated nine feet four inches in 3200 years. The total accumulation to the desert sand measured forty-one feet, showing that this deposition has been going on for 14,000 years (Lyell, I., 431-439). The deposits of the Mississippi at its delta are in some places more than 600 feet deep. They are variously estimated to have occupied periods up to 100,000 years (*Dates and Data*, 2, citing Lyell; *Types of Mankind*, 336).

The cutting of the Niagara, at its fall, through seven miles of hard limestone rock, is supposed to have occupied 37,000 years (Lyell, *Prin. of Geo.*, I., 358-361). But "the time necessary for the formation of the Niagara channel sinks into

insignificance when compared with that required to produce the Great Cañon of the Colorado, California. This is a narrow chasm, 500 miles in length, with perpendicular sides, varying in height from 3000 to 5000 feet, and hollowed out of the solid rock by the rush of the stream flowing in it, which has cut through all the sedimentary strata and several hundred feet into the granite beneath" (*Dates and Data*, 1, citing *New Tracks in North America*, by W. A. Bell).

Professor Agassiz reckons that it has required 135,000 years to form the coral reefs of Florida (Lyell, *Ant. of Man*, 44). Estimating their rate of growth at one-eighth of an inch in a year, for reefs, such as exist, of at least 2000 feet in thickness, the period of 192,000 years would be requisite (Huxley, *Critiques and Addresses*, 131, citing Dana).

At cuttings in New Orleans in the delta of the Mississippi, under an existing wood of oaks, have been found the remains of ten successive cypress forests which have replaced one another. The estimate for the whole is 158,400 years (*Types of Mankind*, 337, 338).

Kent's Cavern at Torquay has three several depositions of stalagmite flooring, ordinarily separated from one another by strata of loam, or breccia, of considerable thickness. Stalagmite is formed by droppings of water, containing a solution of lime, obtained in passing through the limestone roof of the cavern. It is laid in very thin laminæ, slowly formed, and runs to considerable depths. Such measurements as five and six feet, eighty inches, seven feet, and even twelve feet and a half, are given as the varying thickness of an individual floor (*Reports to British Association for 1868*, pp. 51, 54, 55). Some very enormous period must necessarily have been passed in the formation of these deposits.

The several features which are above in question relate only to the upper portion of the crust of the earth, the formation of which, in the estimate of geologists, is a thing of yesterday in comparison with the remoter operations of the Silurian, Cambrian, and Laurentian eras. It is only in the vaguest manner that any idea of the vast antiquity of the oldest deposits can be expressed. For example, Sir Charles Lyell would assign 240 millions of years to the Cambrian system (*Prin. of Geo.* II., 340), while Volger proposes 648

millions as the age of the oldest formation (Büchner, *Force and Matter*, 61).

Geologists have divided the strata containing organic remains into three great sections, termed the Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary periods, to which has been added the Post-Tertiary or Quaternary period. My subject does not require me to deal with the remains of the two earlier sections. At the commencement of the Tertiary epoch "there was a start given to the development of species, and new forms and new types came then into being. What the change consisted in we do not know; but it may have been some great change in the relative proportions of land and water: a change from a world almost covered with water to one with less sea and more dry land. The fact that no remains of land-animals have been found during the cretaceous epoch, and very few of terrestrial plants, while soon afterwards they become plentiful, suggests the possibility of this having been the nature of the change. Whatever it was, however, the fact seems certain that a great change did then occur, and, *inter alia*, that terrestrial life for the first time assumed an important place among created beings" (Murray, *Distribution of Mammals*, 23).

The Tertiary period, it is necessary to note, has been divided by geologists into various sections. The lowest and most ancient of these is termed the Eocene, after which come the Miocene and the Pliocene. Then occurs the period of the fluvial drift, after which is the Pleistocene, belonging to the Quaternary period in which we at present stand.

Among the various nations of the earth, none possess historical traces which reach back to so remote a period as do those of the Eastern Aryans, of whom I have treated specially in a separate work.* Their still existing classic language, the Sanskrit, is of an antiquity which may not be measured; and it points to a still earlier tongue on which it has been modelled, belonging to them at that indefinable period when they occupied their original Bactrian home. Then, in that region, they were already a civilized people, with a long prior history, before we find them overpassing their bounds and spreading themselves far and wide among less advanced races.

* The Legends of the Old Testament traced to their apparent primitive sources.

They may be recognized far south in India by astronomical tables made true for the year B.C. 3102, and on the conclusion that the zodiac is an instrument of their invention, the Egyptian zodiac of Dendera gives them an antiquity of above 17,000 years.*

The Chaldean astronomical tables reach to the year B.C. 2234. There is an Egyptian inscription of the eighth year of Sesourtesen III. of the XIIth dynasty, supposed to be of about B.C. 2200 (*Types of Mankind*, 268, citing de Rouge). And there is "a Cushite, or Hamitic inscription, found in Susiana, in which there is a date that goes back nearly to the year 3200 before Christ" (Baldwin, *Pre-hist. Nations*, 185, citing Rawlinson).

Lepsius gives the age of Menes, the first historical king of Egypt, at B.C. 3893 (Osburn, *Monumental Hist. of Egypt*, I. 232). Menes is associated with foreign conquests, public monuments, and progress of arts. A numerous population, and a long period of civilization, must, it is concluded, have preceded him; and there were, it is evident, contemporary nations with whom this martial monarch measured his strength (*Types of Mankind*, 236). Menes is said to have constructed important engineering works, diverting the course of the Nile for the protection of Memphis, and excavating a vast reservoir for the superfluous waters of the river (Osburn, I. 229, 230). The earliest of the great monumental remains of Egypt, including the pyramids of Gizeh, belong to the IVth, Vth, and VIth dynasties. It is noteworthy that these, the most ancient specimens, transcend in excellence the later productions, and in themselves afford evidence of anterior cultivation of art, through no inconsiderable period (Marriette Bey, *Aperçu de l'Hist. Anc. d'Egypte*, 76-78). "The perfection of Egyptian art is to be found in the monuments which are of the remotest date. The most ancient remains with which we are acquainted are those in which the largest amount of artistic and handicraft skill has been displayed. There are tombs, the decorations of which are so far beyond the range of modern art that all copies of them which I have seen give but the same faint hint at the original as one of the ordinary modern reproductions of the Venus de Medicis, or the

* The Legends of the Old Test., &c., 49, 50, 53.

Belvidere Apollo. These tombs are all of the very remotest antiquity. The deterioration from them is exactly graduated as we descend the stream of Egyptian history. With occasional and very partial exceptions, the oldest monument is the best executed, and the most recent the worst, whether we commence our researches from the source or the termination of this long river, or from any point intermediate" (Osborne, I. 209, 210). The Hieroglyphic writing of the Egyptians has undergone no changes, and appears perfected in the earliest tracings we have of it (*Ibid.* I. 418, 419). Fragments of burnt brick and pottery have been found in the alluvium of the Nile, which are thought to belong to a period corresponding with B.C. 7500 (*Dates and Data*, 27, 28). Herodotus was shown by the Egyptian priests the effigies of 343 generations of priests who had followed each other in regular succession to the time of Sethos, who was of B.C. 713. The earliest of the line, it is computed, must have been of fully B.C. 12,000 (*Ibid.* 4). The oblong Zodiac of Dendera, in the primitive position of its signs, points to an age dating 17,250 years ago, before which time there must have been a period of civilization to have led up to the use of such an instrument.*

In Denmark, beech forests are found growing on sites over the remains of more ancient forests. These consist of oaks of two varieties and Scotch firs. Implements of the polished stone, or Neolithic age, of bronze, and of iron, are met with in these localities. The beech having flourished in Denmark 1800 years ago, in the time of the Romans, the lowest of the embedded forests must have existed from 5000 to 6000 years B.C. (*The Anc. Cave Men of Devon*, 18, 19). The animal remains here found are those of existing species.

The Swiss lake habitations contain objects of the Neolithic stone age, and of the bronze age, but none of iron. Among the relics of animals are those of the Urus, which is now extinct, but existed in the time of Cæsar. The reindeer, so common in ancient times in the southern parts of Europe, was not then in this region (*Anc. Cave Men of Devon*, 23; Lubbock, *Pre-Hist. Times*, 150-152).

* The Speaker's Commentary Reviewed, 120; The Legends of the Old Test., &c., 53.

The Danish kitchen middens, or refuse heaps, lie beyond the era of metals, and contain unpolished but well-shaped stone implements, which are held to belong to the early part of the Neolithic period. The animal remains are of existing species, together with the Urus (*Anc. Cave Men of Devon*, 19; Lubbock, 181-196).

Remains of pottery have been found twenty-eight feet below the surface in Somersetshire, in conjunction with the bones of the mammoth and extinct rhinoceros (*Dates and Data*, 11). Under the second of the embedded cypress forests in the delta of the Mississippi, pottery has been discovered, and under the fourth of these forests a human skeleton, which is of the computed age of 57,600 years (*Types of Mankind*, 272, 337, 338).

In 1837 the discovery, by M. Boucher de Perthes, of celts, or flint implements, shaped artificially, in the gravel of the drift period, opened out an important source of evidence to the exceeding antiquity of the human race. A few such specimens had been brought to light in England by Mr Conyers in 1715, Mr Frere in 1800, and MM. Toornall and Christol, in the south of France, in 1828 (Lubbock, *Pre-hist. Times*, 271, 257), but though these objects were in strata, containing bones of extinct mammals, public attention was not drawn to the circumstance. Among the various localities belonging to remote periods in which the celts have been found, may be instanced an aqueous deposit of from twenty to thirty feet in thickness, in land now one hundred and sixty feet above the sea, and ninety feet above the river Somme, in a country, the surface of which has undergone little alteration since the times of the Gauls and Romans, whose sepulchres are there (*Dates and Data*, 5, note); also breccia not less than sixty feet beneath the earth's surface, and undisturbed drift gravel within six and a half feet of the chalk (*Ibid.* 9, 10).

Human remains, and other works of art, have been discovered in the same position as the celts; that is, in the drift deposits, and in contact with the bones of extinct mammals. In 1863, M. Boucher, at Moulin-Quignon, drew out a human jaw-bone from its position embedded half a yard below the tooth of a mastodon (*Dates and Data*, 5-7). In the same

year Mr Poole exhumed from the banks of the Bridgewater Level, in Somersetshire, pottery and human bones, at a depth of twenty-eight feet below the surface, with bones of extinct animals (*Ibid.* 11). In the following year M. Boucher de Perthes found a considerable number of human bones, intermixed with those of various animals, and a human jaw-bone buried twenty-five feet below the surface, beneath bones of *Rhinoceros tichorhinus* and *Bos primigenius* (*Ibid.* 7). In the same year, Dr Falconer, with MM. Lartet and de Verneuil, discovered in the valley of Vezère (Dordogne), pieces of ivory, on which was engraved the head seemingly of a mammoth. From the same valley M. de Vibraye obtained a fragment of reindeer bone, on which was engraved the head of the true elephant, differing, however, materially from the existing African and Asiatic types; and in other diggings at Dordogne and Charente he discovered, depicted on various substances, representations of a combat of reindeer, of a stag and doe, a horse, ox, otter, and beaver, all designed with artistic skill, and indicating a knowledge of the said animals in life. The fossil bones of these animals were in the same localities (Lesley, *Man's Origin and Destiny*, 258-261). In 1866, Professor Cocchi, of Florence, dug up, near Arezzo, a human skull, forty-eight feet below the surface, under the gravel and alluvium, six feet above which was the tusk of a mammoth (*Dates and Data*, 11). In 1868, M. Bertrand discovered a quantity of fossil human remains in the quaternary drift at Clichy, near Paris, in contact with bones of the mammoth, rhinoceros, and hippopotamus (*Ibid.* 11, 12).

Very abundant testimony, of vast importance, has been furnished by deposits in caverns. In 1828 and 1829 MM. de Christol and Tournal found in caves at Pondres, Souvignargues, &c. (Gard) and Bize (Aube), human bones and fragments of coarse pottery in juxtaposition with remains of the cave bear, rhinoceros, and hyena (*Dates and Data*, 35). In 1852, seventeen human skeletons were discovered in a cave at Aurignac (Haute Garonne), together with teeth of extinct mammals, and eighteen little discs of sea-shell pierced as for ornaments. In 1860, M. Lartet examined the spot. The grotto had been closed with a large upright slab of stone

which had protected its contents from the attacks of wild animals. The bones within were consequently ungnawed, and among them was the whole limb of a cave bear on which the flesh must have existed when it was deposited. There were also here human bones, flint instruments, bones and horns of reindeer shaped as awls, bodkins, arrow-heads, and whetstones, and a bird's head formed out of the eye-tooth of a bear. In earth thrown out of the grotto when the skeletons were removed were discovered a beautiful specimen of worked reindeer horn, a hundred miniature weapons in flint, fragments of pottery, and human and animal bones ungnawed. Outside, on a terrace level with the floor of the grotto, in a continuous deposit, were hearthstones, charred wood, cinders, pottery, flint tools, and arrow-heads, and burned and fractured bones of the cave bear, mammoth, rhinoceros, Irish elk, and cave lion, which had been split open by man for the marrow, and gnawed by animals. The whole gave evidence of a funerary grotto, the human remains having been deposited therein with food and miniature weapons for the use of the departed, while feasts in their honour had been held outside the cave (Lesley, *Man's Or. and Dest.*, 261-264; Lubbock, *Pre-hist. Times*, 262-265; Lyell, *Ant. of Man*, 181-193). In 1863, MM. Lartet and Christy explored ten caverns in the valley of Vézère (Dordogne), in which they found bones of extinct animals, flint implements, and bones on which reindeer and other animals now extinct were very skilfully engraved. In one instance the human figure had been represented. In 1869, M. Lartet, junior, discovered in these caves five gigantic human skeletons with bones of the mammoth, &c. (*Dates and Data*, 38). In the same year, Vicomte de Lastie disinterred in a cavern in the valley of the Aveyron (Tarn-et-Garonne) a jaw-bone, teeth, and other portions of human crania, together with implements of horn and bone on which were engraved figures of the mammoth and the head of the reindeer. In the same locality were the bones of the reindeer, cave hyena, and other extinct mammals (*Ibid.*, 38). Dr Edward Dupont, from the year 1865 and onwards, conducted explorations in twenty-four caves in the valley of the Lesse, near Dinant, Belgium, in which numerous human bones, thousands of flint implements, and a vast variety of horn and bone instruments

associated with the fossil remains of the mammoth, rhinoceros, cave hyena, cave lion, &c., were found. There were also reindeer horn instruments pierced with holes, and a paved fireplace whereon lay a mammoth's bone (*Ibid.*, 38, 39).

Kent's Cave, near Torquay, of all the caverns that have hitherto been explored, affords the most important light in relation to the age of the earth and its human inhabitants; and it has the advantage of being carefully and scientifically examined by a Committee of the British Association who have been labouring there without intermission since the year 1865. The floor of this cavern is laid out in well-distinguished strata, one deposit divided from the other and sealed up with a solid coating of stalagmite, so that the whole presents a well-ordered calendar of the ancient histories thus preserved. There are six geological deposits, namely, (1) of black mould, forming the surface floor of the cavern; (2) a floor of granular stalagmite; (3) a stratum of red cave earth; (4) a floor of crystalline stalagmite; (5) a stratum of brown rock-like breccia; (6) another floor of stalagmite. The cave consists of two ranges of chambers running north and south. The eastern range has been systematically examined to the depth of four feet in the red cave earth, or the third of the deposits. But in a compartment called the south-west chamber, where the two upper floors of stalagmite were in contact, operations were carried on by tunnelling in the brown breccia below, and in this way the existence of the third floor of stalagmite was brought to light. The bottom of the cavern has not yet anywhere been reached, and the western range is still unexplored. Where the superior stalagmite floors touch each other, from want of intervention between them of the cave earth, they are always distinguishable, the one being chiefly granular and the other wholly crystalline. Sometimes the crystalline floor of stalagmite is wanting, and the cave earth and breccia are in contact, but the lines of these deposits are always distinct. The relative eras of the objects laid up in the several deposits can thus always be satisfactorily distinguished, and we have consequently before us reliable records of the existence of man, and the animals associated with him, from modern and historical

times, far back to some inconceivably remote stage of antiquity.

1. The Black Mould runs from less than an inch to a foot in thickness. In it has been found "a very large and miscellaneous assemblage of natural and artificial objects, ranging from the present day back through mediæval and Romano-British to pre-Roman times." The objects are human vertebræ, jaws, teeth, and portions of skulls; charred wood; whetstones and polishing-stones; flint flakes; stone spindle whorls, plain and ornamented; fragments of curvilinear plates of slate, supposed to be covers of earthenware pottery; bone awls, chisels, and combs; bronze rings, a fibula, spoon, spear-head, socketed celt, and pin; amber beads; pieces of smelted copper; and much broken pottery, one specimen Samian (Greek), and others Roman. The human remains are very abundant, and the bones having been cut and scraped by sharp instruments, and broken for the marrow, there is room to apprehend that the inmates of this period were cannibals. The shells and animal remains all belong to existing species.

2. The uppermost, or modern floor of Stalagmite, contains small fragments of limestone cemented together with carbonate of lime, and is so compact as to require blasting. Sometimes it is hard and crystalline in alternation with soft and granular deposit. In the great chamber it runs from one to three feet in depth. In some places, where the drop is excessive, it reaches five, six, and even seven feet in thickness. It contains palæolithic flint implements, charred wood, marine and land shells, bones of existing animals, and some of those which are extinct, namely, of the horse, cave hyena, rhinoceros, and of a bear which may be the cave bear. Of human remains, there have been met with only a tooth and a portion of an upper jaw containing four teeth, which were deeply embedded in the stalagmite, here twenty inches thick.

3. The Red Cave Earth is composed of angular pieces of limestone, and occasionally rounded stones not belonging to the cavern hill, mixed in with earthy deposit. In the north entrance chamber, termed the vestibule, under the stalagmite, either touching it or removed from it by intervention of from three to six inches of cave earth, was a layer of black soil, covering an area of about one hundred square feet, to the

depth of from two to six inches. This is termed the Black Band, and is of the same character as the black mould above the stalagmite. This place was extremely rich in objects, and contained remains of ox, deer, horse, badger, bear, fox, rhinoceros tichorhinus, and cave bear; palæolithic flint implements, chips, and flakes; bones partially burnt, and charred wood in great quantities; bone tools, consisting of an awl, a harpoon barbed on one side, a needle with a well formed eye, and a nondescript instrument. In this part of the cave, it is conjectured, the cave men dwelt and had their fires. The cave earth is well stocked with bones of extinct animals, which increase in frequency in the lower levels. These remains are of the cave bear, grizzly bear, cave lion, cave hyena, fox, horse, ox, deer of several species, Irish elk, reindeer, beaver, tichorhine rhinoceros, and mammoth. Mixed up with these are palæolithic flint and chert implements, and there are also pieces of burnt bone and rounded stones not belonging to the hill formation. One of the latter is judged to be part of a whetstone. A foot deep in the cave earth was a bone harpoon, barbed on one side. Beneath the black band, two feet down in the cave earth, was a highly finished bone harpoon, barbed on both sides; and in the fourth foot below the stalagmite, in contact with the molar of a rhinoceros, was a well finished polished bone pin, three and a half inches long, which it is supposed was an article of toilet.

4. The second floor of Stalagmite. This is in thin laminæ, showing it has been deposited slowly, and is formed into prismatic crystals. At the tunnelling called the Water Gallery, and in parts called Smerdon's Passage and the Sloping Chamber, it is *in situ*, and in the latter place is sometimes as much as twelve feet thick. In other places it has been found broken up, sometimes in large fragments which are incorporated with the cave earth and modern stalagmite floor, and projecting a foot beyond the superficial black mould, and measuring three or four cubic yards. Many of these fragments contain bones and teeth, but of the cave bear only.

5. The Brown Breccia. This consists of pieces of rock compressed together so as to form a firm compost of the solidity of rock. It was found *in situ* at the water gallery,

and there, in the first foot level, was obtained a small angular chip of flint; and two or three feet down in the breccia was a flint which has been carefully examined by an expert, and is considered to have been shaped by human hands. Two other flint implements, according to a later report, have been found in other parts of this deposit, at depths in it of from one to two feet; and by the last report, presented to the British Association in September 1873, we learn that seventeen more such implements have been therein discovered, which "are of a far more archaic character than those found in the cave earth" (*The Times* of 26th September 1873). In various places the breccia has been broken up in masses, and is full of remains of the cave bear. These bones have no marks of having been rolled, broken, or gnawed, and, as they lie together without the least reference to their anatomical relations, it is not apparent how they have been introduced into the cave. The other extinct animals, such as the cave hyena, the cave lion, the mammoth, rhinoceros, and horse, have no *reliquiæ* in this deposit. The cave bear has thus for long ages, in this region, had precedence of the other extinct animals, and, on the testimony of the flint implements, man, at that remote period, was his contemporary.

6. The lowest Stalagmite Floor. The rock-like breccia contains considerable pieces of stalagmite, which give evidence of a floor deposited below it. Some of the pieces are of great size, but no foreign objects are spoken of in connection therewith.

All through the various deposits of the cavern, and on the upper surface of its soil, occur blocks of limestone, torn down from the roof or sides of the cavern by some unknown force. These are of all ages, and some are of huge size—one being estimated at as much as thirty tons.

The peculiar testimony of Kent's Cavern is amply supported in other directions. There are two distinct floors of stalagmite in the Windmill Hill cave at Brixham, as I am informed by Mr Vivian; in Poole's Cavern, Buxton, as appears in the account thereof by Mr Redfern, the proprietor; in the caves of the Wye (*Times*, 6th March 1874); and in the cavern called Trou de la Naulette, near Dinant, in Belgium

(*Dates and Data*, 39). Single floors occur, I believe, very frequently, and perhaps universally, in limestone caverns; and that successive ones have not been more frequently brought to light, is due probably to want of sufficient exploration, or the shallowness or modern formation of the caverns. Under the stalagmite depositions of caves which have been examined, remains just such as have been met with in Kent's Cave have been obtained. So far back as before the year 1774, deep in the soil under the stalagmite floor in the caves of Gailenreuth, in Franconia, were found human bones and fragments of rude pottery, in company with the osseous remains of cave bears and cave hyenas. Dr Buckland visited these caverns in 1816 and 1824 (*Dates and Data*, 34). In the caves of Kostritz, in Upper Saxony, Dr Schotte and Baron von Schlottheim discovered human bones in ossiferous loam, at a depth of twenty feet, under a crust of dense stalagmite, some of which were embedded eight feet beneath the remains of a rhinoceros. These explorations were reported on in 1848 (*Ibid.* 35). In 1853 Professor A. Spring found five human jaw-bones, a parietal bone, and a flint hatchet, in a breccia floor, below several feet of cave earth, having a crust of stalagmite, in the Caverne de Chauvaux, near Namur, Belgium. The human bones were in contact with those of the eland, auroch, and other animals, many of which were artificially split (*Ibid.* 36). The two layers of stalagmite in the Trou de la Naulette, before spoken of as a cavern in Belgium, alternate with stratified beds of clay. In a deposit of sandy clay, below the lowest of the stalagmite floors, at a depth therein of three metres and a half, were found a human jaw-bone, two teeth, and an arm-bone, with the fragment of a reindeer horn, which apparently had been bored by some sharp instrument (*Ibid.* 39).

The positive evidence of the existence of human remains below a second floor of stalagmite, furnished by the cavern last mentioned, assists us in accepting, as human relics, the flint implements found in a like position in the breccia of Kent's Cavern. The occurrence of human remains and works in the gravels of the drift period places man on earth before the quaternary age. The second floors of stalagmite, below which we have proofs of his being, were, it is probable, deposed

anterior to the drift. And that man lived on earth far onwards, during the Tertiary period, there is other distinct evidence.

In 1827 Captain Elliott and Dr Meigs discovered several hundred human skeletons at Santos, in Brazil, in calcareous tuff rock, containing serpulæ and other marine shells, and covered with soil bearing a growth of large trees. In 1844 a fossil human skeleton was found by M. Aymard, at Denise, near Le Puy, in France, in volcanic tuff, in company with bones of hippopotamus and cave-bear. And in the museum of Quebec is a fossil human skeleton, which was dug out of the solid schist whereon the citadel of that place stands. All these have been thought by competent authorities to belong to the Tertiary formations (*Dates and Data*, 13).

In the upper Pliocene strata at Prest, near Chartres, M. Desnoyers and the Abbé Bourgeois found bones of *Elephas meridionalis* and *Rhinoceros leptorhinus* engraved with figures of animals. The circumstance was reported on in 1867 (*Ibid.*, 12).

In 1867, Mr James Watson discovered portions of a human skull at Altaville, near Angelos, Calaveras County, California, imbedded in a stratum of undisturbed tertiary, in a mining shaft, at a depth of 130 feet below the surface. Above this there lay four beds of volcanic tuff, alternating with deposits of gravel, whereof one was 25 feet thick. The base of the skull was incorporated with a mass of bone breccia, and other parts were covered with an incrustation of carbonate of lime (*Ibid.*, 12, 13).

In the records of the Geological Survey of India for 1868, Dr Oldham has described an agate flake of human workmanship found by Mr Gwynne in undisturbed Pliocene deposits of the Upper Godavery (*Ibid.*, 13).

Bones engraved with figures of animals have been found in the Pliocene at Calle del Vento, near Savona, by M. Issel, and in the Miocene strata of Selles-sur-Cher (Loire-et-Cher) by the Marquis de Vibraye. These explorations are reported in 1868 (*Ibid.*, 12).

The following important communication, made by Mr Frank Calvert through Sir John Lubbock, appears in the *Journal of the Anthropological Institute* for April 1873 (p. 127):—

“I have had the good fortune to discover, in the vicinity of

the Dardanelles, conclusive proofs of the existence of man during the Miocene period of the tertiary age. From the face of a cliff composed of strata of that period, at a geological depth of eight hundred feet, I have myself extracted a fragment of the joint of a bone of either a dinotherium or a mastodon, on the convex side of which is deeply incised the unmistakeable figure of a horned quadruped, with arched neck, lozenge-shaped chest, long body, straight fore-legs, and broad feet. There are also traces of seven or eight other figures which, together with the hind quarters of the first, are nearly obliterated. The whole design encircles the exterior portion of the fragment, which measures nine inches in diameter and five in thickness. I have also found in different parts of the same cliff, not far from the site of the engraved bone, a flint flake and some bones of animals, fractured longitudinally, obviously by the hand of man for the purpose of extracting the marrow, according to the practice of all primitive races.

"There can be no doubt as to the geological character of the formation from which I disinterred these interesting relics. The well-known writer on the geology of Asia Minor, M. de Tchihatcheff, who visited this region, determined it to be of the Miocene period; and the fact is further confirmed by the fossil bones, teeth, and shells of the epoch found there. I sent drawings of some of these fossils to Sir John Lubbock, who obligingly informs me that having submitted them to Messrs G. Busk and Jeffreys, those eminent authorities have identified amongst them the remains of dinotherium, and the shell of a species of melania, both of which strictly appertain to the Miocene epoch.

"In addition to these discoveries, and at about ten miles distance from the above locality, I have lately come upon other traces of man's existence in drift two or three hundred feet thick, underlying four or five hundred feet of stratified rocks. I cannot positively affirm that this formation is likewise Miocene, the fossil shells it contains not having yet been examined scientifically; but in all probability such will prove to be the case. Throughout this drift I have found numerous stone implements, much worn. Flint is comparatively rare, but other hard stones have been adopted, jasper, of red and

other colours, being predominant. Some of the implements are of large size, and weigh upwards of nine pounds."

Mr Calvert then notices the discussions held on the assumption of man's antiquity being possibly measurable by about one hundred thousand years, and adds, "The remarkable fact is thus established beyond a question, that the antiquity of man is no longer to be reckoned by thousands, but by millions of years."

The phenomena before us, and especially the features of Kent's Cavern, give evidence of changes occurring in the circumstances of the earth whereby corresponding variations have arisen in the character of the deposits laid upon its crust. Had there been no alteration of the conditions of the earth, its surfaces would have incurred no other change than what length of time, or pressure, might effect. But the surface deposits have undergone marked and decided transitions, which bespeak corresponding changes in the operating causes to which the condition of the deposits is due. Wherever, for example, a stalagmite floor has been deposited upon a lower earthy stratum, there is evidence of this change. The earthy stratum has existed without its stalagmite covering. Then something has occurred to bring down the drip and effect the deposition of the stalagmite. Where there are two such coatings, as we see in several instances, and where there are three, as in Kent's Cave, there is proof of some very decided recurring cause, which at one time has arrested the drip, and at another has set it free. The thickness of the stalagmite floorings denotes long maintenance of their inducing circumstances.

The coal measures afford a like testimony. They consist of numerous deposits of the vegetable substances which have been converted into coal, between which intervene beds of shale and clay-slate. In Coalbrookdale there are 90 such alternations. In Dudley there are seams of coal of from 30 to 45 feet thick, divided into numerous strata by intervention of very thin layers of clay-slate. The Saurbrücker coal, according to Humboldt, has 120 beds superposed on one another, exclusive of a great many less than a foot in thickness. Some seams are from 30 to 50 feet thick (*National Encyclopædia*). The coalfield of Cumberland, Durham, and

Northumberland, has about 147 different strata, the coal alternating with limestone, sandstone, and clay-slate (*Penny Cyclopædia*). In the Hainaut (or Mons and Charleroi) basin, the measures are 9,400 feet thick, with 110 seams of coal; in the Liège basin, 7,600 feet, with 85 seams; and in Westphalia, 7,200 feet, with 117 seams (Mr Prestwich in *Nature*, V. 472). The coal represents exuberant fertility, and the shale and clay-slate absolute sterility, both maintained for considerable periods. "Every foot of thickness of pure bituminous coal implies the quiet growth and fall of at least fifty generations of *Sigillariæ*, and therefore an undisturbed condition of forest growth through many centuries" (Huxley, *Critiques and Addresses*, 106, citing Principal Dawson).

The indications of ice having prevailed over parts of the earth now possessing a warm temperature, and the occurrence of fossils of tropical and sub-tropical plants embedded in the present frigid zone, give similar evidence of marked changes in the condition of the earth. Mr Andrew Murray, in his work on the *Geological Distribution of Mammals*, has a map laying down the positions in which glaciers are found to have at one time covered portions of the earth. In North America the line reaches from Lat. 34° N. to 31° N. In South America it runs along the line of the Andes across the Equator to 2° N. In Europe it is a varying line, sometimes reaching to 50° N.; and it embraces detached mountainous regions, such as the Alps, the Caucasus, the mountains of Asia Minor, Thibet, and Nepaul, extending as far as 27° N. It is assumed, ordinarily, on negative evidence, that the ice reached only certain limits north and south, and did not occur within the tropics, except where favoured by high mountain tops, but I have seen vast boulders on the plains of Bellary, and at the Sacrifice Rocks out at sea on the coast of Malabar, which appear to be evidences of glacial transference; and a correspondent of mine, who is a competent scientific observer, has found similar signs of glaciers on the table land of Mysore, the low levels of Chittoor, and at St Thomas's Mount in the immediate neighbourhood of Madras,—these observations extending to what are now very hot localities, on moderate or low levels, within thirteen and eleven and a half degrees of the equator.

The domination of the ice was no mere passing visitation. "The glacial period, as measured by years, must have been very long." "We have excellent evidence that it endured for an enormous time, as measured by years, at each point" (Darwin, *Or. of Spec.*, 404, 407). Sir Charles Lyell describes it as of "vast duration" (*Ant. of Man*, 365). "It lasted for thousands, if not hundreds of thousands of years" (*Prin. of Geo.*, I. 212). Mr Murray also speaks of it as prevailing "for thousands and thousands of years" (*Dis. of Mam.*, 31). Geologists agree that this epoch occurred at the close of the Pliocene era. But there were previous such epochs. "We have good evidence," says Mr Croll, "of at least three ice periods since the beginning of the Tertiary period—one about the middle of the Eocene period, another during the upper Miocene period, and the third and last well-known glacial epoch." He also speaks of glacial marks occurring in the Cretaceous and Permian deposits (*Phil. Mag.* for Nov. 1868). "In lectures and print," says Prof. Ramsay, "I have frequently stated my belief that the brecciated sub-angular conglomerates and boulder beds of the Old Red Sandstone of Scotland and the North of England are of glacial origin. . . . Respecting Permian times I attempted in 1855 to prove the existence of ice-borne boulder beds during part of that epoch, and by degrees this opinion has been more or less adopted" (*Nature*, V. 64, 65). The ice-borne boulders have left their testimony behind them in unsuspected quarters. "The strangest of all places," observes Mr Milton, "to find these boulders, is at the bottom of mines." Many have been discovered deep below ground, but lately Mr Salmon gave an account of some found at seventy-four fathoms, or four hundred and forty-four feet below the surface" (*Stream of Life on our Globe*, 71).

The prevalence of tropical heat, in past times, in the Arctic zone, is equally well recognized. The coal measures are composed of conifers, palms, ferns, tree-ferns, club-mosses, araucariæ, &c., often of gigantic growth. Such a vegetation requires long sustained warmth, and would be unequal to combat with even an ordinary wintry climate. "The same gigantic coniferous and filicoid plants are found alike in the coalfields of Britain, America, Melville Island, and Australia

—regions at once tropical, temperate, and Arctic" (Frith, *Mys. of Life*, 233, citing Page's *Advanced Text Book*). Fossils of these products were found by Captain Parry in Melville Island, in lat. 75° N.; they have been met with also in Bear Island in lat. $74^{\circ} 36'$ (Lyell, *Prin. of Geo.*, I. 225). "The trunk of a white spruce tree was dug up by Sir E. Belcher near Wellington Sound in lat. $75^{\circ} 52'$. . . and the remains of an ancient forest were discovered by Captain M'Clure in Bank's Land, in lat. $74^{\circ} 48'$ Evidence of ancient forests was found in Patrick's Island, and in Melville Island, one of the coldest spots perhaps in the northern hemisphere" (Croll, *Phil. Mag.* for Nov. 1868). The coal measures of Melville Island have displayed a "noble scene of luxuriant and stately vegetation," a region where at present there are ninety-four days in the year when the sun is never seen, and one hundred and four when he never sets, having maintained plants requiring for their possible existence a diurnal alternation of light and darkness (*Penny Cyclopædia*). "We must remember that the Polar climate at the time was genial. Frost and snow were unknown, and the northern district of Iceland, and several parts of the Arctic lands, such as Disco Island on the west coast of Greenland, lat. 70° N., although at the present time entirely without trees, were densely wooded in the Tertiary period. Fragments of trees are preserved in the lignite or 'Surturbrand' of Iceland, and as they are still covered with bark they cannot have reached it as drift wood" (Murray, *Dist. of Mam.* 34).

The warmth of climate in the arctic zone has also been a recurrent circumstance. Wherever there are coal seams, as in Melville Island, there is evidence of the alternations of fertility and sterility. Shells, such as are now met with no further north than the Mediterranean, have been found in the Pliocene strata of Britain; such as belong now to Senegal, on the west coast of Africa, occur in the Upper Miocene of France; and fossil palms, and about eighty other sorts of plants which could not stand the measure of winter prevailing in the central and southern parts of Europe, have been found in Iceland in the Lower Miocene strata (Lyell, *Prin. of Geo.*, I. 199-203). "In Spitzbergen, in lat. $78^{\circ} 56'$ N., no less than ninety-five species of plants are described by Heer,

many of them agreeing specifically with North Greenland fossils. In this flora we observe *Taxodium* of two species, a hazel, poplar, alder, beech, plane tree, lime (*Tilia*), and a *potamogeton*, which last indicates a fresh water formation, accumulated on the spot. Such a vigorous growth of fossil trees, in a country within 12° of the pole, where there are now scarcely any shrubs except a dwarf willow and a few herbaceous and cryptogamous plants, most of the surface being covered with snow and ice, is truly remarkable. . . . We cannot hesitate to conclude that in Miocene times, when this vegetation flourished in Spitzbergen, North Greenland, and on the Mackenzie river, as well as Bank's Land, and other circumpolar countries, there was no snow in the arctic regions, except on the summit of high mountains, and even there perhaps not lasting throughout the year" (*Ibid.* I. 203, 204). "Again, in the Lower Eocene strata, we find in the London clay of the Isle of Sheppey, fossil fruits of the coconut, screw pine, and custard apple, reminding us of the hottest parts of the globe; and in the same beds are six species of nautilus and other genera of shells, such as *Conus*, *Voluta*, and *Cancellaria*, now only met with in warmer seas. The fish also of the same strata, of which fifty species have been described by Agassiz, are declared by him to be characteristic of hotter climates; and among the reptiles are sea snakes, crocodiles, and several species of turtle" (*Ibid.* I. 205). "Mr Bowerbank has described no fewer than thirteen fruits of palms from the Eocene beds in the Island of Sheppey, all of the recent type, now found only in India, and in the Moluccas and Phillipine Islands" (Murray, *Dist. of Mam.*, 24). With these indications before us of a high temperature having subsisted in the various strata of the Tertiary period, and in the carboniferous age, it is presumable that the intermediate and other strata of the earth have been similarly circumstanced. That a high degree of warmth also occurred in the Quaternary period is apparent. "No tree now grows in Orkney or Shetland, the only ligneous things that do grow are the *Betula Alba* and the common juniper, both merely existing as shrubs; but at six feet beneath a peat bog, trees, branches, leaves, and cones, ascribed to the silver fir, have been found—one tree in particular of six feet

in circumference, and forty feet in height, being recorded by Mr Edmonston as having been found in Shetland. When did these trees grow, and what was the climate of Britain then? Was it really milder then than now, as we should be inclined to expect, from the fact of these trees being found in Shetland, where they will not now grow? As to the date of their growth there, there can be very little doubt that it was subsequent to the glacial epoch. The grinding of the ice of that time would sweep away every trace of peat bogs from the surface of the land. Were a Swiss glacier to meet a peat bog in its course, it would soon plough it up, and scarify the ground to the very bone below. It is plain, therefore, that the tree must have grown and died, and the peat been deposited, subsequent to the glacial epoch" (Murray, *Dist. of Mam.*, 40). We have here, therefore, three alternations of climate demonstrated after the region had parted with the warmth occurring in the Pliocene era, namely, the glacial epoch, a return to a high temperature, and the present low temperature unfavourable to the growth of large vegetation.

Colonel Drayson suggests that the alternation of layers of flints with chalk may mark epochs created by the climatic changes which the earth, by its change of position relatively to the sun, undergoes. In Shakespeare's Cliff at Dover, and in Flamborough Head, above two hundred layers of flint have been counted (*Last Glacial Epoch*, 170).

The successive imbedded forests of Denmark and the Mississippi probably owe their origin to the same cause. The warmth has favoured the growth, the arctic temperature has destroyed it, and the repassing of the earth into a warm temperature has induced a fresh growth.

Various have been the efforts made to account for the very decided alterations of climate, the recurrence of which has been unmistakably recorded on the surfaces of the earth. The variation in the ellipticity of the earth's orbit; a possible change of climature incurred in the progress of the whole solar system through space; altered relations of land and water; even a possible deflection of the Gulf Stream in its course, have been suggested as causes of these great phenomena; but it is generally agreed that they are one and all inadequate to explain the features which have to be accounted.

for, so that the whole question remains one still open to consideration.

If appeal to the actualities of experience may be permitted to guide us in judging how the same portion of the globe has been for ages at one time under a continual load of ice, and at another producing a luxuriant growth of vegetation, requiring tropical heat and freedom from wintry cold, we can but ascribe the cause to the absence or presence of solar heat, which, invariably to our senses and observation, regulates these conditions. To imagine such changes in the circumstances of the earth, irrespective of the action of the sun, is to violate all probability, to subvert the known regulations of the terrestrial system, and to make our planet, in its extremest states, independent of its governing orb. Nothing, in consistency with the existing ordering of what affects the earth, it is right to conclude, can have produced the great climatic changes marked upon its surface, but the subjection of the portions so affected to those alterations of position relatively to the sun, which would naturally induce such changes. These places have in one age been so situated that the sun's rays have fallen upon them imperfectly, or not at all, and in another they have received those rays continuously in direct vertical power. The arctic, or polar features, when they have occurred, have been due to a polar position, and the torrid features to an equatorial one. From this conclusion there is really no reasonable escape. The one circumstance standing opposed to its reception is that astronomers have not detected those geographical changes in the earth, relatively to its poles and equator, which such a proposition involves. The question is, whether the science of astronomy has been prosecuted under sufficient advantages, for an adequately lengthened period of time, to make it certain that no movement to which the poles of the earth could be subjected, of whatever slowness in measure, can be occurring, without having come under observation.

The earth, it is apparent, is subject to other changes of position relatively to the sun than are involved in its diurnal rotation and annual orbit. There are two ascertained variations which denote further change. One is the continual alteration of a line drawn through the centre of the sun to the constella-

tions mapped out on the zodiac, by which there is a constant apparent passage of these stars, as measured at the equinoxes, so that, in time, the circle of these constellations undergoes an entire revolution relatively to the sun at the equinoxes. This is called the precession of the equinoxes, and it occupies a period computed at about 25,870 years (Guillemin, 456). The movement is attributed to a perturbation of the earth by the sun and moon acting upon its bulge, or wider diameter, at the equator, whereby the poles of the earth are drawn out of course, and pass through a circular movement in a wavy or nutatory line. The other indication is the continual alteration of the angle formed by the equator with the ecliptic, the angle being said to diminish at the rate of forty-eight seconds in a century. Some connect this movement with the equinoctial one, and some hold the two to be independent.

In 1827, Mr S. A. Mackey, of Norwich, in a work on Mythological Astronomy, accounted for the climatic changes of the earth by an astronomical movement. He held that the course taken by the poles of the earth in effecting the precession of the equinoxes was not truly circular, but spiral, the poles altering their position by four degrees at each revolution of the equinoxes. He assumed a round period of 25,000 years for the said revolution, whereby, at a change of 4° at each revolution, he obtained a cycle of 2,200,000 years for the complete rotation of the poles. Elsewhere he estimated the precessional revolution at 25,700 years. Mr Mackey cited Indian information in support of his conclusions. "The Hindoos," he stated, "had also observed the angle of the pole to vary four degrees each revolution of the equinoctial points" (112). Herodotus also, he notices, reported "that the CHOEN, or men of learning in this country (Egypt), informed him that the pole of the earth and the pole of the ecliptic had formerly coincided" (30). Again, Berosus, it appears, told Calisthenes "that 403,000 years before his time, the axis of the earth was parallel to the plane of the equator" (80), meaning, apparently, that the axis of the earth and the equator had changed positions. "The pole of the earth," alleges Mr Mackey, "will unite with the pole of the ecliptic in about 200,000 years, which union will produce universal spring" (155). "In all this vast portion of the earth," he

concludes, "we have found the remains of an ancient knowledge, which proves in the most satisfactory manner, that the poles of the earth were formerly in the plane of the ecliptic, and that they have been separated from it by a slow progressive motion—by a spiral recession which, at once, in our time, produces that effect which we call the precession of the equinoctial points, and the diminution of the angle of the ecliptic with the equator" (174). The Hindú doctrine of the recurrent dissolutions and creations, of the earth (Manu's *Institutes*, i. 52-57; Muir, *Sansk. Texts*, III., 304), which we are accustomed to attribute to mere fancy, may prove to be based upon solid foundations. Certainly it consists, very remarkably, with the phenomena of which only in modern times we have become conscious in Europe, namely, that the earth has at periods received the death stroke of glacial sterility, and at others has revived and been clothed with the exuberant products of tropical fertility.

Mr Mackey was a practical astronomer, and Mr J. E. Mayall of Brighton, who is also a proficient in the science, has endorsed his opinion in a paper on Volcanic Theories read by him before the Naturalists' Society of Brighton, in January 1870. These views I followed in my section on the Age of the Earth in my *Speaker's Commentary Reviewed*, and now recur thereto, but in a modified and amended form.

In the past year, Lieutenant-Colonel Drayson has published a work on *The Last Glacial Epoch of Geology*, in which he offers a solution of the climatic changes which are in question on astronomical grounds. Colonel Drayson disputes the current idea that the precession of the equinoxes is effected by the movement of the poles in a circle which has for its centre the pole of the ecliptic, the radius of which is $23^{\circ} 28'$. The continual diminution of the angle of the ecliptic, he points out, shows that the poles and the ecliptic have a varying, not a corresponding course (105, 111, 116). He therefore suggests that the centre of the required circle is a point removed 6° from the pole of the ecliptic, and with a radius measuring $29^{\circ} 25' 47''$, whereby the precessional cycle is extended to 31,840 years (127, 137, 141). By means of a diagram, it is explained that at the half of this period, or every 15,920 years, the poles of the earth are brought into

such a position as to induce a glacial temperature in winter, alternating with a tropical one in summer, in all places situated, as is England, within a latitude of $54^{\circ} 34'$ N., and in a parallel position to the south (145, 247, 256). This, Colonel Drayson holds, satisfies the conditions of the case, as glacial marks have not been traced further south in Europe, though in America they have been observed as far as 38° N. lat. (17, 281-283).

Colonel Drayson's remarks and conclusions, if entitled to weight, make it apparent that the great question before us, what are the movements of the earth, exclusive of its diurnal rotation and annual course round the sun, on the proper understanding of which the climatic changes it undergoes depend, is a matter still involved, in its essential particulars, in uncertainty.

The axis of rotation, Colonel Drayson maintains, never alters relatively to the earth, but changes its direction as regards external objects at the rate of $20''$ annually, or 1° in about 180 years (101, 103, 192). One effect of this circumstance may be that the movement described by the poles may possibly not be a circular one (116, 216), a result which would favour Mr Mackey's theory of a spiral movement: Colonel Drayson makes the circumstance, however, consist with his circular movement, which, if accepted, throws the precessional movement, as currently estimated, out of the field.

The received theory that the change in the angle of the ecliptic is caused by a change in its plane, he disputes, observing that if, as held, the poles of the earth move in a circle whereof the pole of the ecliptic is the centre, no alteration of the plane of the ecliptic would alter its angle (92).

The theory of La Place respecting the change of the angle as caused by a change of the plane of the ecliptic, (which Herschel has adopted,) is that it is an oscillatory movement confined to the limits of $1^{\circ} 21'$ on each side of a mean position. More recently, however, Leverrier has laid it down that it extends to $4^{\circ} 3'$ (91, 92, 234). The present rate of the decrease in the angle, Colonel Drayson considers to be $45''$ per century (115); but, taking the ordinarily stated rate of $48''$, La Place's movement over $2^{\circ} 42'$ would occupy

20,250 years, and Leverrier's, over $8^{\circ} 6'$, would require 40,500 years more, before the supposed retrogression of the plane would take place. If, then, the movement may possibly advance so far beyond the limits at which La Place has conceived a retrogression is effected, possibly there is no such retrogression at all, and the movement is not an oscillatory but a continuous one. Colonel Drayson accounts for the change in the angle by means of a totally different cause, namely, the peculiar circular movement of the poles of the earth which he advocates (92).

Colonel Drayson thus disallows the received elements of the precessional movement before us, saying that, "up to the present time the true course of the pole has never been known" (132). This is a judgment to which I feel warranted to subscribe, as, wherever I have presented the particular theory I have been led to adopt in view of the climatic changes of the earth, I have been given to understand that there is nothing yet so positively ascertained in the realms of astronomy as to contradict my conclusions absolutely.

Mr Mackey's proposition involves a constant revolution of the poles; the north pole, for example, being brought to the present position of the equator, then to that of the south pole, then again to that of the equator, and finally recurring to its original place. But such changes would merely induce extremes of heat and cold, in summer and winter, in the polar and adjacent regions, while the necessities of the case call for long maintained alternations of the contrasted temperatures; and this is an objection equally fatal to Colonel Drayson's theory, which secures no more than hot summers and severe winters in the quarters of the globe which are with him in question.

But if, as appears to have been the case, ice capable of conveying huge boulders has prevailed on the eastern coast of India to 13° of N. lat., and on the western to $11^{\circ} 30'$, there is an extent of glacial action which Colonel Drayson has not contemplated, and for which the astronomical movement he projects makes no provision. He leaves to the tropics the climate they now possess, whereas this quarter of the globe would seem, equally as the polar parts, to have been at one time under a heavy coating of ice.

Glaciers are known of, formed of ice "in some cases thousands of feet in thickness." They are met with in Greenland, "at the very least, 3000 feet in thickness." Those of the Alps, in the glacial period, were "on an immensely larger scale than at present." "The lowlands were covered with a universal coating of ice, probably as thick as that in the north of Greenland in the present day" (Drayson, 12-18, citing Professor Ramsay). We can form some idea of these masses from the fragments which detach themselves from them and float in the sea as icebergs. One has recently been observed, stranded on the coast of Newfoundland, which, after being some considerable time at sea, exposed to summer heat, had an estimated thickness of 280 feet (*The Times* of 22d August 1873).

The masses of rock borne upon these glaciers over extensive distances are evidence of their great expanse and solidity. The pedestal of the statue of Peter the Great is one of these, the weight of which is computed to be 1500 tons. The Needle Mountain in Dauphiny, measuring 1000 paces in circumference at the top, and 2000 at the base, is supposed to be another. Other specimens are mentioned of forty feet by fifty, weighing 3,800,000 pounds; of 1200, 2250, and 10,296 cubic feet; of 27,000 cubic feet, weighing not less than 2310 tons; of 8000 cubic feet, and weighing 680 tons; and in conglomerate of an estimated weight of as much as 5400 tons. "The instances are endless that might be given of similar large and insulated masses now lying at a remote distance from the parent rocks from which they have been abstracted" (Drayson, 55-57). In Sutton Common, Craven, is one of about fifty yards in circumference, and ten yards in height. In Canada "huge granite boulders" "lie strewed like the wreck of some mighty city of old" (Milton, *Stream of Life on the Globe*, 72, 73). "Solid packs of ice," it is suggested, "nine and twelve hundred feet high, and miles long, could have borne any number of these rocks" (*Ibid.* 74). Those seen by me in the district of Bellary, and on the coast of Malabar, were of great size and weight, as large as ordinary buildings. The glaciers of the ancient days, which were capable of bearing and conveying these ponderous masses, have left proportionate moraines, or rubbish heaps, scored up in their passage.

These are "on a scale so immense that the largest forming in the Alps in our time are of mere pigmy size when compared with them" (Drayson, 17). In Canada, "when the ice retired, it left a bed of drift, five to eight hundred feet deep" (Milton, 73); and boulder clay is met with, running to seventy and eighty feet in thickness (*National Encyclopædia*). These vast glacial effects could not possibly have been produced by winters, of whatever severity, interrupted by summers bringing with them torrid heat. They necessitate long sustained cold, unchecked by serious heat, as in the present polar regions, where ice dominates through all seasons of the year, and geologists have consequently been satisfied that the true glacial epochs are to be measured by ages.

The prevalence of the heat when places now in the arctic zone were covered with luxuriant foilage, equally requires the element of long continuance. The tropical plants of the coal measures, which are frequently of large proportions, could not have been produced in countries subject at the time to arctic winters, or cold of any marked degree of severity. Colonel Drayson's astronomical movement would only secure a tropical temperature as far as $30^{\circ} 30'$ N. lat. ; but it is required to have extended forty degrees higher up at Melville Island, Bear Island, and Wellington Sound. He has also failed to explain how an arctic position extending to $54^{\circ} 34'$ can have secured a glacial epoch in America sixteen degrees still farther south.

Nothing, therefore, will adequately account for the effects of climate before us, but such an alteration in the relations of the earth's surface to the sun, as may bring any given locality at one time to the position of those places which we see now covered with ice in the vicinity of the poles, and at another to that of those clothed with luxuriant vegetation in the neighbourhood of the equator. Like effects, we have the right to assume, have been produced by like causes.

To effect the requisite geographical changes of the earth relatively to the sun, it is apparent that the earth must be constantly altering its position with respect to its poles. Either the mass of the earth is always, however slowly, moving away from its poles, or the polar axis is slowly altering its position across the earth.

The first circumstance to be understood is what constitutes the rotating axis of the earth ; or, in other words, what is the power which makes the earth revolve on an axis ? Here the astronomers have hitherto failed to supply us with any solution. It may be deduced, I have been informed, from Prof. Faraday's views, that the rotating power is magnetism directed on the earth by the sun ; and there is assuredly much to support such an idea. The sun's rays will restore the power of a weakened magnet, and an iron key exposed to them has been converted into a magnet (Reichenbach's *Researches*, 145). An iron ship under construction is sensibly affected by magnetic action directed upon it, presumably, by the sun. Every such vessel has a power of its own to influence the compass, termed its local variation, and the character of this variation depends on the position in which the vessel may have been originally constructed. That is, a vessel laid down, when being built, in the direction of the poles, north and south, will have a specific local variation, and one laid down in the direction of the equator, east and west, will have a different local variation. And these specific characteristics will belong to the several vessels ever after. It is apparent, therefore, that the vessels have become magnets, but with properties varying according to the direction of the currents which have magnetized them. I have this information from a reliable source. The human body is similarly affected. Sensitive persons suffer a disturbance when sleeping in the line of the magnetic equator, which does not occur when they are in the line of the magnetic poles. "Terrestrial magnetism has been clearly shown to be influenced directly by the action of the sun" (Proctor, *Light Science for Leisure Hours*, 6). Faraday ascertained by experimenting on a diversity of substances, mineral, vegetal, and animal, that all are in various degree amenable to magnetic influence (Tyndall, *On Diamagnetism, &c.*, xii). The intensity of the magnetic action, General Sabine has found, varies according to the nearness of the earth to the sun in its orbit. It is greatest in both hemispheres in December and January, when the earth approaches nearest to the sun (Proctor, *Light Science*, 32). What are called magnetic storms are now attributed to solar agency. The aurora has been found "associated in some

mysterious way with the action of the solar rays" (*Ibid.* 71). Baron Reichenbach made some interesting experiments in relation to this fact. By means of the observations of sensitive persons, he found that the ends, or poles, of magnets, emit luminous matter, of which he gives several drawings, and this suggested to him "the key to the explanation of the aurora borealis" (9-19). He gathered the sun's rays on metal plates, and, on conducting a wire attached thereto into a darkened chamber, luminous flames were there exhibited as from the magnet (147, 148). Finally he suspended a hollow globe, made of sheet-iron, through the centre of which was adjusted a magnetic coil, the opposite ends of which were charged by means of wires attached thereto from a strong battery. The globe was to represent the earth, and the magnetic coil its polar axis. The magnetic charge produced to sensitive eyes in the dark, in miniature, at the representative poles, the luminosity and diversified colouring and play of light of the aurora (564-575). The needle is disturbed by the aurora, and will always, when suspended, direct itself to that point on the horizon to which the luminous streamers of the aurora converge, the summit of the arch lying directly above this point. "From all this," says General Sabine, "it appears, incontestably, that there is an intimate connection between the causes of auroras, and those of terrestrial magnetism" (Proctor, *Light Science for Leisure Hours*, 5).

The rotatory movement in his miniature globe, it would seem, was neither thought of nor obtained by Baron Reichenbach in his experiment, but a correspondent has communicated to me an illustration of its occurrence, the idea of which he derived from Faraday. "One of Faraday's experiments," he tells me, "I have myself made in model. A round ball of wood floats in water, with an iron wire through its poles. This wire has been made magnetic in the ordinary way, so that it has a north and south pole. The ball and its poles now represent the earth floating in space. By means of an electro-magnet at some little distance from it, the ball can be made to rotate on its axis." Some substances, Professor Tyndall informs us, when suspended between the poles of a magnet, are repulsed and set equatorially, or at right angles to the line of the poles. This is what is termed *diamagnetism*.

Others are attracted, and are set axially, or in the line of the poles (*On Diamagnetism*, &c., xi, xii.). In this manner the induced course of magnetic currents will set a body in rotation, a repulsive force driving the object in one direction, and an attractive force directing it the opposite way (*Ibid.* 98, 99). Baron Reichenbach, at page 23 of his work, has drawings of the visible flames of steel magnets being completely turned aside by the visible flames of electro-magnets, illustrating thus the power of magnetism to excite motion.

The magnetic influence exerted upon the earth has its representative poles and equator. The equator is that line where a suspended needle remains in equilibrium horizontally. This runs east and west, but does not coincide with the earth's equator, which it crosses at an angle of twelve degrees (Proctor, *Light Science*, 29). The magnetic poles are those points north and south, towards which the suspended needle dips the more and more it approaches them, its position becoming perpendicular at the poles. These poles do not coincide with the axis of the earth. Sir J. G. Ross found a magnetic north pole at 70° N. lat. and 263° E. long., and a south pole, which he approached, but could not actually reach because of ice, the position of which he has laid down at 75° S. lat., and 154° E. longitude (*Ibid.* 29, 30). In 1683 Halley enunciated a theory of there being four magnetic poles (Humbolt's *Cosmos*, II. 719), and Mr. Proctor endorses the fact, mentioning that while there is a north magnetic pole in the direction of Lake Superior, westward of the meridian of Greenwich, there is another eastward in Siberia (*Light Science*, 32). The circumstance is of importance in judging the question of the earth's rotation by the means of solar magnetism. In the experiment by Baron Reichenbach, his globe, apparently, did not rotate, which may be accounted for by the line of magnetism being confined to the narrow limits and direction of the wire representing its axis. In the experiment by my correspondent, the magnet was held at some distance from his globe, and the magnetic discharge, ejected upon the surface of the globe, and commanding thus a certain breadth in space, had a leverage on the globe by which it effected its rotation. The earth is similarly acted upon by a broad belt of magnetism occupying the space between its two

sets of magnetic poles, and embracing, say 90° on each side of its axis of rotation, whereby the requisite leverage to produce rotation is obtained. The magnetism of the sun, it may be concluded, strikes the earth over its globular superficies in this broad band, disappearing where the rotund form of the earth recedes from arresting it.

The sun has a superficies which is 12,611 times that of the earth (Guillemin, 24). Our comparatively small globe, poised in free air, would be readily set in motion by its vast magnetizer. Its rotation is effected in something under twenty-four hours, while that of the moon, notwithstanding its very inferior bulk, occupies more than twenty-seven days. This, however, is consistent with the laws of magnetism, if we conceive the earth to be an induced magnet, receiving its influence from the sun, and the moon to be in like manner dependent for its magnetism and rotation on its governing orb, the earth. The earth having only a borrowed power to exercise towards its satellite, is comparatively with the sun a very much weaker agent, and its action on the moon is consequently feeble, and the rotation of the moon by so much slower. That Jupiter and Saturn, which are very much larger bodies than the earth, and more distant from the general magnetizer, the sun, should rotate much more speedily than the earth, namely, in about ten hours, is explained by their very much lower density.

The sun itself has a revolution on its axis, which is effected once in every twenty-five days. It is also moving through space, with its dependent orbs, apparently round some very distant centre. The sun, and all other associated systems, have, consequently, it may be judged, a supreme central governor, controlling their movements, as each minor system is controlled by its central orb. One system, moreover, will act upon and induce perturbations on another, as the units of each system act upon and disturb each other's movements. The sun, therefore, like the earth or any other of its dependent orbs, is apparently subject to direction and alteration in its course and movements by powers external to itself. We may, hence, readily understand that the sun may undergo changes of position which would alter its axis, and by consequence change towards the earth the direction of

that magnetic current emanating from it, which effects the axial rotation of the earth. In this manner the axis of the earth may be undergoing a slow constant movement relatively to the surface of the earth, bringing all places upon the surface under those climatic changes which it is plain they have experienced. The declination of the needle is continually varying. In 1492 it was in Europe towards the east. In about 1657 it pointed due north. After this its course was to the west; and in 1817 it was observed to retrograde to the east (Proctor, *Light Science*, 31). The magnetic equator is observably changing its position. In 1671 the inclination, or dip, of the needle was 75° ; in 1791 it was less than 71° ; and in 1831 it was less than 68° . In London the inclination in 1786 was 72° ; in 1804 it was 70° ; and at present it is 68° (*Ibid.* 30). These are circumstances which indicate variations of the solar magnetic current, assisting us to understand the possibility of that great movement which may be altering the position of the earth's axis, and affecting the climature of all places on its surface.

Such a revolution of the polar axis of the earth would subject every portion of the earth to four transitions of climate, in the extreme, in the course of one such rotation. Each part would be twice in a line with the poles, north and south, and twice, intermediately, in a line with the equator. It would be subject, in each rotation, to two glacial and two torrid epochs, these epochs alternating with each other.

The changes which have been noted in the upper series of the earth's strata are the following,—

1. Quaternary—Tropical and passing on to be Glacial.
2. Lower Quaternary—Glacial.
3. Pliocene—Tropical.
4. Upper Miocene—Glacial.
5. Miocene—Tropical.
6. Miocene—Glacial. (Not observed, but necessary to complete the series).
7. Lower Miocene—Tropical.
8. Eocene—Glacial.
9. Eocene—Tropical.

Thus in the Tertiary strata, of eight noticeable alternations

four belong to the Miocene period, which in geological charts is comparatively to the others a very narrow section. The probability, therefore, is that there have in this division of the earth's crust been several more climatic changes than have as yet been detected.

It is a received axiom that a sphere must rotate on its shortest axis. The earth does so, its axis of rotation being 139,670 feet, or a little above $26\frac{1}{2}$ miles less than its diameter at the equator. This would be a difference, proportionately, of a tenth of an inch in a sphere measuring a yard in diameter (Guillemin, 98). If, then, the polar axis is altering its position, the sphere of the earth would have to counteract the movement by ever presenting for rotation its shortest axis, or the earth must change its form to adapt itself to its altering condition. In the former case we have to suppose a power in the earth to resist the effect produced upon it by its governing orb, and to direct itself in a line counter to the governor's movement. Moreover, the climatic changes we are seeking to account for would not occur while the earth's surface and its poles continued relatively in unaltered positions. We are driven, therefore, to the other alternative that the earth changes its form to adapt itself to its shifting poles, in consistency with which action there are certain corresponding indications.

The bulge of the earth at its equator is considered to be the effect of the greater degree of centrifugal force to which its crust is exposed in that quarter by its rotatory movement. The equator would shift in unison with the movement of the poles, and as each portion of the earth became equatorial, it would be subject to the higher centrifugal force there maintained; and yielding to the pressure, would, in keeping with the pace of the slow movement of the poles, gradually distend itself to the superior equatorial proportions, ever leaving, therefore, for the process of rotation, its shorter axis. It is just in that equatorial position that those disturbing forces chiefly prevail which are seen altering the earth's levels, producing elevations and depressions of its surfaces, and the equatorial line itself bears evidence of being disarranged by some such operating power. "The most recent results arrived at by geologists have taught us that the earth is not quite truly

represented by an orange, at all events, unless the orange be slightly squeezed, *for the equatorial circumference is not a perfect circle, but an ellipse*, the larger and shorter equatorial diameters being respectively 41,852,864 and 41,843,896 feet. That is to say, the equatorial diameter which pierces the earth from longitude $14^{\circ} 23'$ east to $193^{\circ} 23'$ east of Greenwich, is two miles longer than that at right angles to it" (Guillemin, 98); and other such irregularities may be supposed to exist elsewhere through a sphere subject to constant distention and compression.

Taking the crust of the earth in stratified and unstratified rocks to amount to twenty miles, the globe would be represented by a sphere with a diameter of thirty-three feet, and a crust of one inch in thickness. Such a crust having a measure of elasticity, it is easy to understand that its form, or diametrical dimensions, might be varied, within moderate limits, by the application of adequate force. That it has met with and yielded to such force, the condition of its strata makes manifest. These have for the most part been deposited horizontally as aqueous sediments, and afterwards have been upheaved and depressed at all angles. The "faults" in metallic loads are evidence of the operation of such force. The veins of the ore are found ruptured and displaced, it being one of the difficulties of mining to recover them. The dislocations in coal measures are of the like character. In a representative sphere of the dimensions I have suggested, a projection or depression of the supposed crust to the extent of a quarter of an inch would suffice to raise up or submerge our highest mountains; and an alteration of its diameter by less than an inch and a third, would establish the variation of diameter we now possess on comparing the polar with the equatorial axis.

Volcanic agency is also in greatest activity at the equator. The inhabitants of Peru, for example, live in constant terror of the disturbances to which the crust of the earth in that portion of the globe is subject. Mr Mayall's theory is that in the equatorial region, where the centrifugal force is greatest, and the crust of the earth most distended, volcanoes find their readiest vents, and then, through the pericycloidal movement which the earth, he conceives, is undergoing, pass to

the very various positions in which we find them. He has traced twenty-two nearly parallel lines circuiting the earth along which volcanoes are ranged, which represent to him so many alterations of the equatorial circle. Thus, at other times, Hecla in the extreme north, and Mount Erebus in the extreme south, have been in the position of Chimborazo at the equator, and as the poles of the earth have altered their direction, and made parts which were equatorial polar, these arctic and antarctic volcanoes have been transferred to the places they now occupy relatively to the axis of rotation.

The phenomena of Kent's Cavern become readily explicable under the operations I have been describing, as consequent upon the movement of the poles of the earth. The cavern is subjected to some force which at various times has broken down large masses of its limestone lining, blocks of which are seen passing through all its deposits, and lying upon the mould which forms its surface floor. Fragments of this limestone pervade all the deposits, and probably constitute in chief part the solid breccia which is its fifth deposit. Those who are engaged in exploring the cavern have naturally apprehended that the roof over them may be in an unsound condition, but, on testing this, it has been found perfectly safe. The committee, in dealing with the subject, thus express themselves,—“Since the large masses of limestone occur at all levels in the cave earth, as well as everywhere above it, it is obvious that, whatever may be the cause to which their fall is attributable, they cannot be referred to any one and the same period. They fell from time to time throughout the accumulation of the cave earth; they continued to fall whilst the stalagmite breccia was in process of formation, as well as during the introduction of the black mould; and they are amongst the most recent phenomena which the cavern presents. . . . It is by no means easy to determine the cause which threw them down. To call in the aid of convulsion seems undesirable, since it would be necessary to do so very frequently. Moreover, it may be doubted whether anything short of a violent earthquake would be equal to the effect. Though the roof of the chamber is of very great span and entirely unsupported, and though it presents appearances which are not calculated to inspire con-

fidence, the violent concussions produced by the frequent blastings already mentioned, blastings which not unfrequently threw masses of limestone, weighing upwards of a ton, to a distance of several feet, have never brought down even a splinter" (*Report for 1865*, iv.). There has also been the disruption of the lower stalagmite and breccia floorings. The three superior deposits, namely, the black mould, the uppermost stalagmite floor, and the red cave earth, remain *in situ* undisturbed, but the dense deposits forming the second floor of stalagmite, the brown breccia below it, and the lowest observed floor of stalagmite beneath that, have undergone great violence, by which they have been more or less broken up. The Committee frequently notice these disruptions, and thus treat more particularly of the condition of the second stalagmite floor. "As has been stated in previous reports, the Committee have long been familiar with the presence of blocks of stalagmite in the cave earth, and have inferred from them that an ancient floor of the cavern had been broken up by natural agency before or during the introduction of the cave earth. There seemed no difficulty in conceiving of a machinery by which such a floor might have been destroyed in the comparatively lofty chambers. For example, it was known that the deposit which the old floor had covered, and on which it had been formed, had been, in some parts of the cavern, partially dislodged, or had subsided so as to leave the floor unsupported; it was also known that blocks of limestone, some of them scores of tons in weight, had from time to time fallen from the roof, and it was not difficult to see that such blocks would break into fragments any such unsupported floor on which they might fall. This, however, utterly fails to account for the destruction of the floor which once existed in at least some of the narrow passages of the North Sally-port. That such floors have been destroyed admits of no question, since, as has been already stated, remnants of them still adhere to the walls, to say nothing of their abundant fragments in the deposit below. That they were not destroyed by the fall of blocks of limestone is obvious from the facts that their remnants on the walls show that they were almost in contact with the roof even as it now exists, and that the roof itself presents no

indications that such masses have been detached from them. This problem still awaits solution" (*Report for 1870*, p. 28)

The magnitude of the force which has caused the disruption of the limestone of the cavern, and the breaking up of its floors, is apparent. It is equally apparent that it is a recurrent force, not always in operation. The limestone has been broken down at various times; and the cavern being found at present in a sound condition, no such process, it is evident, is now going on. In like manner the floor deposits have been acted upon at different times, and are not now being disturbed. The two lower floors of stalagmite, with the intervening breccia, have been subjected to the force in question; but the cave earth, upper stalagmite floor, and superficial mould, continue intact, and have, therefore, not been so circumstanced as to suffer from it. The altering condition of the earth, caused by the continuous alteration of its poles, explains the whole matter. The cavern, when in an equatorial position, has been subjected to the distension and compression there occurring. The Committee contemplate something with the power of an earthquake as necessary to have produced the effects before them, and the cavern, when thus situated, would be just so visited. The older floors have been in circumstances to experience the struggle of the earth to attain its equatorial dimensions, and have been injured accordingly. The rock, and the firmly compressed breccia, were of unyielding texture, and had to give way in fraction. The lower stalagmite floors having become crystallized were equally unyielding, and suffered proportionately. The cave earth is of looser consistency, and accommodated itself to the pressure put upon it, as did the upper floor of stalagmite, which is for the most part granular. Their time of disruption has yet to come.

The occurrence of several distinct floors of stalagmite, of which three are discernible in Kent's Cave, and two in other caverns in England, France, and Belgium, is due to some general cause which has interrupted the drip, and then allowed it to flow again. The passage of the caverns into a glacial temperature, which would freeze and bind up the drip, and their transference subsequently to a warm temperature which would thaw and set it free, will account satisfactorily for these recurring floors. The alternations in the caverns are therefore

evidence of the climatic changes to which the earth, through the movement of its poles, is subjected.

I will endeavour, on this footing, to trace the history of the several deposits in Kent's Cavern. The third or lowest floor of stalagmite, I will presume, was formed when the cave was passing through a temperate and equatorial climate, from say latitude 70° South to 70° North. At this time disruption of limestone from the inner lining of the cavern would have taken place, caused by the distension of the earth's surface when this part was at the equator. The materials of the breccia flooring would then be deposited, the stalagmite filtering through it and forming itself below. At the same time the human and animal remains were deposited in the then loose breccia. For the period marked by a change of 40 degrees, measuring 20° on each side of the North Pole, a glacial temperature prevailed. The drip was frozen up, and the earthy ingredients mixed in with the breccia were gradually added to it. The cavern was then again subjected to warmth from latitude 70° north to 70° south, and the drip being resumed, the second floor of stalagmite was produced. Then also occurred the equatorial disruptions, and the stratum of cave earth was formed; and the new deposits became stocked with animal and human remains of the period. These remains abound in the lower levels of the cave earth, which belong to the non-glacial period, and are more rare in the upper levels, which I assume to have been completed during the next occurring glacial period. At this, or at the next occurring equatorial period, the lowest floor of stalagmite may have been broken up. The cavern then passed through the glacial epoch ensuing, in its passage over forty degrees, or twenty on each side of the South Pole, when the drip was interrupted and the stratum of cave earth completed. The cavern once more passed into a warm climate from 70° south to its present position at say 50° north latitude. The drip was resumed, and the formation of the upper floor of stalagmite, now in process of completion, was entered upon; the equatorial disruptions occurred, breaking up the two older stalagmite floors and the breccia, and bringing down fresh blocks of limestone; the black mould was at the same time introduced, the stalagmite dripping through it as on the former occasions, and the human and animal remains of thi

period were furthermore deposited. When the cavern subjected to a further change to bring it to lat. 70° N., the next glacial epoch may be expected. The deposits of the cavern thus represent one entire revolution of the poles of the earth, and a further passage over 120 degrees, during which the existing modern floors have been forming.

The movement of the polar axis of the earth involves a corresponding change of its equatorial line, and this circumstance, I apprehend, to account for the ever varying alteration of the angle formed by the equator with the ecliptic. The rate at which the angle changes, if understood, would give the rate at which the revolution of the poles is effected. The astronomical manuals describe the rate as if an invariable one $48''$ in a century. Col. Drayson states it as at present $4''$ in that period, and maintains that it is a rate continually altering. At page 122 of his work he supplies a table of eleven observations of the condition of the angle made from A.D. 1437 to 1870, which, by the comparison of one period with another, give a mean variation of nearly $59''$ in a century. For the sake of approximate calculation I may be allowed to take $60''$, or one minute, in a century, as the rate at which the angle changes, and by consequence at which the poles of the earth undergo their rotation.

The stalagmite flooring of Kent's cave is formed in very thin laminæ, laid down with exceeding slowness. In 1841 a portion of the upper floor, to an extent of about six feet in diameter, was removed, and the cave earth below was dug out and examined. "Probably," say the Committee, "no part of the cavern is in wet weather more exposed to drip than this; hence it might have been expected that here, if any where, twenty-two years would have produced a film of stalagmite of appreciable thickness, especially as it was known that the modern floor attains an average thickness considerably surpassing that in any other part of the cavern which the Committee have explored. Yet not a film was to be found either at the bottom of the pit, on the section made in digging it, or on the cave-earth thrown out of it" (Report of 1868, p. 50). There are two parts of the cavern where inscriptions of names and initials of visitors, with the dates, have been made on the surfaces of the upper stalagmite. In one place, called 2

Cave of Inscriptions, the oldest date is of 1688, and in another, called *The Crypt of Dates*, they reach to 1618. "In looking at those dates," observe the Committee, "it seems impossible to abstain from reflecting on the facts that they are cut on the upper surface of a mass of stalagmite upwards of twelve feet thick, in a locality where the drip is unusually copious; and that two and a-half centuries have failed to precipitate an amount of calcareous matter sufficient to obliterate incisions which at first were probably not more than an eighth of an inch in depth" (Report of 1869, p. 196). The over twelve feet of stalagmite here spoken of, it is to be remarked, is formed by the upper and the second floor of stalagmite at this place meeting together. The second, or completed floor, according to the views I am setting forth, was composed while the cavern was undergoing a change of position relative to the poles embracing 140 degrees, and the upper floor has been forming during a transference over 120 degrees. According to this scale, eighty inches may be allowed for the thickness of the second floor, and seventy for that of the upper one. Mr Vivian, in a paper on the evidences of Glacial Action in South Devon, laid before the Devonshire Association for the Advancement of Science in the year 1868, speaking of the inscription of 1688 in the *Cave of Inscriptions*, assumes that the rate of deposit thereupon may have been "one-tenth of an inch" "during each one thousand years." This would give a rate of a fortieth of an inch in the two and a-half centuries marked in the oldest inscriptions in the *Crypt of Dates*. A deposition at that rate would have occupied no less than 700,000 years to have formed the 70 inches of stalagmite which I have assumed to be the thickness of the upper floor of stalagmite at the place of these inscriptions. The astronomical period for the progress of the poles of the earth over the said 120 degrees during which this floor was, as I conceive, forming, at the rate I have assumed of one minute in a century, would be 720,000 years, which tallies remarkably with the period estimated by the supposed rate of deposition of the drip. At the lower part of this upper floor, it will be remembered, has been found part of a human jaw-bone, and the flint flakes and implements pervade the deposit. The succeeding lower deposits of the cave-

earth and second floor of stalagmite represent the preceding period of warm temperature for the cavern. This involves a passage of the poles over $120 + 40 + 140$ degrees, or 300 degrees, for which, at the rate of change of the angle of the ecliptic, 1,800,000 years is required. In this era, besides the celts, we have the evidence of the charred deposit, termed the Black Band, and the bone implements found therein and below it. During the formation of the breccia, and the lowest floor of stalagmite, the poles were passing over $40 + 140$ degrees further back, making a total of 480 degrees, for which 2,880,000 years are requisite. This represents the total estimated age of the deposits of the cavern, and in this era, in the breccia, flint implements have been obtained, while in a parallel deposit in the Trou de la Naulette, is the more decisive evidence of a human jaw-bone, a human arm-bone, and a fragment of reindeer, apparently perforated by a human artist. It would seem, therefore, from the testimony before us, that we must accord to man existence upon the earth for something like three millions of years.

The age of the earth cannot be thus closely traced as the alternations of climate marked upon its surface do not in all parts readily disclose themselves. The cretaceous and coal systems afford the best available testimony on this head. In the upper chalk beds are found two hundred layers of flints alternating with the chalk. Mr Bowerbank and others are of opinion that flints have been formed from sponges. Ehrenberg has observed among them abundant traces of infusorial animalculæ (*Nat. Encycl.*). Occurring only in the chalk, they must be taken to be sub-marine animal formations. Col. Drayson suggests that these alternations may be due to the climatic changes the earth has undergone. Possibly the ordinary cretaceous animalculæ may mark the seasons of warmth, and the silicified sponges those of cold. The flints, with an equal number of chalk deposits, would thus represent four hundred such alternations. With the one hundred and twenty seams of coal at Saurbrücher, besides a great many more of less than a foot in thickness, and the one hundred and forty-seven seams of the Cumberland series, we may be warranted in supposing that there have been one hundred and fifty such seams, if all were known of, which, with the intervening beds

of shale and clay-slate, gives in this field three hundred alternations. Seven hundred alternations of climate represent one hundred and seventy-five revolutions of the poles, which, at 2,160,000 years for each revolution, amounts to a period of three hundred and seventy-eight millions of years ; and this embraces only portions of the earth's crust, probably amounting to not more than a sixth of its entirety.

It will of course be objected to my suggested movement that the geographical changes it involves have not yet been observed to occur. The value of this objection depends upon whether the condition of scientific knowledge is such that we may conclude what astronomers have not detected does not exist. It is not three hundred years since Galileo was denounced by every astronomer in Europe for his assertion that the earth revolved daily upon its axis ; a very precise nutation of the poles, attributable to the influence of the moon when the earth executes the precessional movement, was first noticed two hundred and twenty-six years ago by Bradley ; it is less than one hundred years ago, or in 1781, that Herschel discovered the important planet Uranus ; it is only twenty-eight years ago since the still more important planet Neptune, was brought to our knowledge by Adams. At the beginning of the current century but seven minor planets were known of circulating between Mars and Jupiter ; their number is now found to be close upon a hundred, and is continually being added to ; and in the early part of this century navigators had to content themselves if, with their imperfect quadrants, they came within thirty or even fifty miles of their true positions. Two movements of the poles of the earth have come under observation,—one their slow gyration occupying nearly twenty-six thousand years, which effects the changes of the equinoxes, the other a system of short frequent nutations, measuring about 10" of the arc, occurring in this precessional gyration ; but at the same time the true course of the poles in this movement, whether circular, elliptical, or possibly spiral, has not yet been ascertained. Under all these circumstances that another very slow movement of the poles, belonging to a cycle apparently of over two millions of years, proceeding only at the rate of less than half a second of the arc in a year, and perhaps complicated with the other known movements of the poles,

should not have been detected, is assuredly no sufficient cause for disallowing the possibility of its occurrence.

The actualities of our astronomical system have occasionally been brought to light through their observed effects. The fall of an apple exposed the law of gravitation, and the perturbations of Uranus led to the discovery of Neptune. The great climatic changes to which the earth has been subjected have only attracted serious attention of late years. They are of a character naturally to have been forced upon the view before the operation effecting them might be discerned. Various have been the efforts to account for these phenomena through known circumstances, but it is allowed that as yet they baffle explanation. Equally have other phenomena, such as the gradual alteration of the earth's levels, the distortion and dislocation of stratified deposits, the disruption of rocky caverns, and the recurrence of successive deposits of stalagmite in such localities as Kent's Cave, defied solution. And where Leverrier goes so far beyond the point at which La Place's calculations require that the supposed alteration in the plane of the ecliptic should cease and be followed by a retrograde movement, the phenomenon of the change in the angle of the ecliptic has to be added to the number of the unsolved problems. The movement I have suggested has the merit of embracing the whole range of these difficulties, and will account for them all. It does so with a simplicity and a certainty consonant to all the grander operations in nature and in conformity with principles effecting similar and less consequential changes. One astronomical movement brings us night and day, another alters the seasons, and it is reasonable to suppose that it is due to a third such movement that the climature of the earth undergoes its evidenced transitions. "There is no more convincing proof," observes Mr Wallace, "of the truth of a comprehensive theory than its power of absorbing new facts, and its capability of interpreting phenomena which had been previously looked upon as unaccountable anomalies" (Bastian, *The Beginnings of Life* II., 605, 606). Mr Herbert Spencer has a similar sentiment (*Prin. of Bio.*, I., 291), and it is one that will assuredly commend itself to all.

The sun being the great supporter and regenerator of the

terrestrial system, it is a fitness of arrangement which may present every portion of the globe to receive in turn his genial influences. According to existing apprehension, such is not the case. Each region of the globe, it is currently held, within circumscribed limits, preserves ever its own portion of his regards. The polar countries have but a scant measure of his influences, while the tropics may be said to be overcharged with his continual presence. One place is habitually buried out of sight in ice, and another scorched up in unbearable drought. The movement I contemplate introduces equal treatment, in time, for all parts of the earth, which become in turn arctic, temperate, or tropical. The capabilities of the earth, in every direction, are put to use, or laid by in disuse, and its productions in every field of organized life are cherished, regulated, expelled, or put an end to, and resuscitated, in an endless variation of its circumstances. The development of the composite materials, and therewith of the capabilities of the globe, progresses with continually increasing advantages. Order and race succeed one another. The older systems and species, after serving their ends, are set aside in favour of higher advances in the limitless progress of the great deviser, sustainer, and director of all things, for the manifestation of what he may purpose in the exhibition of his goodness and power ; so that the more we see of his works the deeper is our admiration of them. To the present enlightened generation it is given to observe and apprehend these high results, in a measure hitherto unattained. The heavenly orbs are opened out to them, group beyond group, through an interminable expanse. Their own system especially invites their study in its exquisitely balanced arrangements. And the globe they inhabit presents a well arranged calendar, now beginning to be understood, recording those long sustained operations which have been directed towards it for their good. To know the works of the Almighty as they should be known, is to get in them a glimpse of himself.

POSTSCRIPT.

Since the foregoing pages were prepared for the press, Professor Geikie's work, entitled "The Great Ice Age," has, in the current year, made its appearance. I have thought it preferable to deal with this important publication separately, rather than serve myself of its contents by introducing them into the body of my work.

Professor Geikie comes to his task as a practical and experienced geologist, and it has been a satisfaction to me to find his facts entirely in keeping with those upon which I have worked out the theory I have ventured to advance in explanation of the observed phenomena. I must be excused, therefore, for making liberal use of the materials thus placed within my reach.

Professor Geikie describes that glacial deposit found in Scotland, which has been the special field of his observations, known under the name of Till. This consists of stiff clay, containing numerous pieces of stone or rock, which are water-worn and striated, or marked by lines running mostly in parallel directions, scratched or furrowed into them (10-15). This deposit is universally recognized as the result of glaciers, which, being in constant motion, grind down the clay and score the loose harder pieces of material met with in their path against the solid rocky surfaces below, over which they are making their passage. The till, consequently, is ground moraine (86-88). It runs in places to a thickness of 100 feet and upwards (16), and has been seen at heights of 2300 feet (94). Scratchings of the stones thus carried forward, and which may be called ice-chisels, are found over the valleys and on hill-tops in the Highlands, to elevations reaching to as much as 3500 feet (83).

This is evidence derived from the bottoms, or the foundations of the moving glaciers. Corresponding evidence is obtained by operations at their upper surfaces. We have presented to us thick coatings of ice, with the tops of the mountains alone uncovered and projecting above the ice. The agency of severe frost is continually splitting and breaking off fragments of these mountain tops, and depositing them upon the glaciers (49, 53); and as the glaciers move forward, they

are borne along, and are finally deposited upon the earth, wherever high lands may arrest the progress of the ice, or where the glaciers may finally disappear by melting under the recurring change to a warm climature. The fragments so transferred are what are known as erratic boulders. These are met with upon hill tops to which they could not possibly be transferred but by the ice agency which suggests itself. "Water might roll them down from one hill into a valley, but it could hardly push them up another hill, and so repeat the process often in a distance of many miles" (30). The size of these erratics, as well as their position, forbids the idea that any amount of water power could have effected the transferences they have undergone. "The mountains that hem in Loch Doon (Ayrshire) are sprinkled with loose angular and subangular stones, some of them striated, and with immense numbers of large boulders of grey granite which do not belong to the hills upon which they rest, but have travelled outwards from the central mountain region." They "are scattered promiscuously over all the hill-tops up to a height of 1700 feet." They "appear near the very top of Beneraird (1400 feet above the sea)." In the Highlands, "the mountain-slopes are everywhere sprinkled with loose earthy rubbish, in which a few faintly glaciated stones sometimes occur, and large erratics occur up to all levels, even as high as 3000 feet, according to Mr Jamieson" (219, 220). "Erratics are of all shapes and sizes—occasionally reaching colossal proportions, and containing many hundred cubic feet. Some are rounded, others only partially so, and very many are angular and sub-angular; not a few also show one or more scratched surfaces" (221). "They are met with here and there in the low-lying parts of Fife, and Mr Maclaren has described the occurrence of a large mass of mica-slate at a height of 1020 feet on the Pentland Hills—the nearest rock from which it could have come lying fifty miles to the north or eighty miles to the west. Boulders of Highland rocks have also been noted on the northern slopes of the Lammermuir Hills. They likewise occur in considerable numbers on the crests of the trappean heights that rise between the valleys of the Clyde and the Irvine" (222). "What, then, do we learn from the erratics? How do we account for the

scattering of these far-travelled blocks over, we may say, the whole face of the country? Some of them, it is evident, must have crossed wide valleys and considerable hills before they came to a final rest. The Highland boulders on the Pentlands and the Lammermuirs, for example, after crossing Strathallan or Strathearn, traversed either the Campsie or the Ochil Hills, and passed athwart the broad vale of the Forth before they finished their journey. By what agent were they transported? The answer is—by a colossal glacier. So, in like manner, would I account for the presence of the numerous grey granite boulders that strew the slopes of the Galloway mountains, and are found distributed far and wide over the low grounds at their base; for the boulders that cluster so numerous along the northern face of the Ochils; for the perched blocks that occur up to great heights in the glens and valleys of the Highlands; and for those that dot the surface of Orkney and Shetland, and the islands of the Hebrides" (223, 224).

By these concurrent testimonies furnished by the ground moraines below the glacial formations, the scratchings made by the ice in its passage over the up-lands, and the erratic boulders which have travelled on the surfaces of the glaciers, all leaving their traces over long distances and at considerable elevations, it has become apparent that Scotland, at one time, has been buried under a mass of ice which must have been more than 3000 feet in thickness, a few hill-tops alone appearing above this *mer de glace* (83, 86, 95, 98, 225). Other countries have been similarly visited. The ice-sheet has spread across the valleys of Great Britain (504). The present glaciers of Switzerland are pigmies compared to those of ancient times, whose traces are apparent (84). "The Jura Mountains, as every one knows, extend in a long series of parallel ridges from south-west to north-east, between the valleys of the Rhone and the Rhine. From the base of these mountains the low grounds of Switzerland roll themselves out to east and south-east, until they sweep up against the great barrier of the Alps. Now upon the southern flanks of the Jura we find numerous scattered blocks and boulders, all of which have been carried from the Alps across the intervening plains, and left where we now see them. Some of the blocks

are of enormous dimensions ; many contain thousands of cubic feet, and not a few are quite as big as cottages. Indeed, one of them, the great granite boulder of Steinhoff, might be compared, as Mr Maclaren has remarked, to 'a goodly-sized house of three storeys.' Such blocks have been observed on the Jura at a height of no less than 2015 feet above the surface of Neufchatel, or 3450 feet above the sea ; and from this elevation, downwards, they are strewn in greater or smaller numbers along the whole mountain-slope that faces the Alps. Towards the north-east, where the Jura begins to lose in height as it approaches the valley of the Rhine, we find the erratics scattered not only along the southern slopes, but even over the tops of the mountains. According to Swiss geologists, these erratic blocks and boulders have been carried down from the Alps on the surface of a mighty *mer de glace*, underneath which the whole of the central low grounds were at one time buried. This vast sheet of ice, not less than 3000 feet in thickness, stretched continuously outwards from the Rhone Valley, and abutted upon the Jura, the higher ridges of which rose above its level" (399, 400). The ancient Rhone glacier advanced across the plains of Switzerland, abutted upon the Jura, joined the glacier of the Rhine, and spread over a distance of 270 miles before it reached its end (400-402). Norway has been under the pressure of ice "which could hardly have been less than 6000 or 7000 feet thick" (381). The whole continent of North America, from the Arctic Ocean to New York, has been under ice (411), and "the thickness attained in Connecticut by the continental ice-mass, has been estimated by Dana to have reached 6000 feet or 8000 feet" (419, 420).

The conclusions thus arrived at from the traces of glacial action observed, are borne out by the actualities to be seen in countries at present subject to the degree of cold that can produce such coatings of ice. These, of course, lie in the neighbourhood of the poles. "Glaciers, like rivers, are of all sizes. Many have a depth of several hundred feet, and some in polar regions are probably not less than 3000 or even 5000 feet in thickness" (49). "The superficial area of Greenland cannot be less than 750,000 square miles, so that the country is almost continental in its dimensions. Of this

great region, only a little strip extending to 74° north lat., along the western shore, is sparsely colonized—all the rest is a bleak wilderness of snow, and ice, and rock. . . . The whole interior of the country, indeed, would appear to be buried underneath a great depth of snow and ice, which levels up the valleys and sweeps over the hills. The few daring men who have tried to penetrate a little way inland from the coast, describe the scene as desolate in the extreme—far as eye can reach nothing save one dead dreary expanse of white. No living creature frequents this wilderness—neither bird, nor beast, nor insect—not even a solitary moss or lichen can be seen. Over everything broods a silence deep as death, broken only when the roaring storm arises to sweep before it the pitiless blinding snow" (55, 56). "Glaciers, as we have seen, enter the sea at many places along the Arctic coasts—often filling up those long deep sea-valleys or fiords which in lower latitudes form commodious natural harbours, and frequently penetrate for many miles into the interior of a country. Of such a character are the friths and fiords of Scotland and Norway. . . . The deep fiord valleys still continue, but they are choked up with glaciers, which have pushed out the sea and occupied its place. As these glaciers slowly creep on to profounder depths, a point is reached at which, as already described, the pressure of the dense sea water becomes too strong for the tenacity of the glacier to resist; and thereupon the ice ruptures, and great masses surge upwards and float off as icebergs. Some of these bergs attain a prodigious size. Dr Hayes measured one which had stranded off the harbour of Tessuissak to the north of Melville Bay, and estimated it to contain about 27,000,000,000 of cubical feet. This berg could not have weighed less than 2,000,000,000 of tons; it was aground in water nearly half-a-mile in depth. What, then, must have been the thickness of the glacier from which it had been detached? Captain Ross, in his first voyage, describes another iceberg of gigantic proportions. This mass of congelation had stranded in sixty-one fathoms of water, and its weight was estimated at 1,292,397,063 tons" (70, 71). "Sir J. C. Ross's striking account of the mighty ice-sheet under which the Antarctic continent lies buried, gives one a very good notion of the kind of appearance which the skirts

of our own ice-sheet presented. After reaching the highest southern latitude which has yet been attained, all his attempts to penetrate further were frustrated by a precipitous wall of ice that rose out of the water to a height of 180 feet in places, and effectually barred all progress towards the pole. For 450 miles he sailed in front of this cliff, and found it unbroken by a single inlet. While thus coasting along, his ships (the *Erebus* and *Terror*) were often in danger from stupendous icebergs and thick pack-ice, that frequently extended in masses too close and serried to be bored through. Only at one point did the ice-wall sink low enough to allow of its upper surface being seen from the mast-head. Ross approached this point, which was only some fifty feet above the level of the sea, and obtained a good view. He describes the upper surface of the ice as a smooth plain, shining like frosted silver, and stretching away as far as eye could reach into the illimitable distance. The ice-cliff described by Ross is the terminal front of a gigantic *mer de glace*, which, nurtured on the circum-polar continent, creeps outward over the floor of the sea until it reaches depths where the pressure of the water stops its farther advance by continually breaking off large segments and shreds from its terminal front, and floating these away as icebergs. And such must have been the aspect presented by the margin of the old ice-sheet, which, in the early stages of the glacial epoch, mantled Scotland and its numerous islets, filling up the intervening straits and channels of the sea, and terminating far out in the Atlantic Ocean in a flat-topped vertical cliff of blue ice" (101, 102).

Such has been, and is, the coating of ice prevailing over extensive portions of the earth at different times. And the condition has been a frequently recurring one. Deposits of glacial till have been found intercalated with stratified beds of sand and clay (158). There are such beds varying "in thickness up to twenty or thirty feet, and in them layers of peat and decaying twigs and branches have been detected. They were clearly overlaid and underlaid by tough stony till" (160). "The intercalated beds are remarkable from having yielded an imperfect skull of the great extinct ox (*Bos primigenius*), and remains of the Irish elk or deer, and the horse, together with layers of peaty matter" (162). In similar positions "the

remains of mammoths and reindeer and certain marine shells have several times been detected" (162). "It is reasonable to conclude that there were times when the great ice-field that covered the country receded so far at least as to uncover the lowland tracts and valleys, and permit the accumulation in those regions of clay, sand, and gravel. Nor does it seem less reasonable also to conclude that after such a recession the ice again advanced and covered up the aqueous strata with thick deposits of stony clay" (166). "The borings prove the existence of two masses of till, with intervening and underlying beds of silt, mud, sand, and gravel (174). The presence of forty feet of silt, sand, and gravel above the till indicates a period of lessened cold, when the ice-sheet disappeared from this region, and permitted the formation of such deposits. But after a time it would appear that the ice-sheet again overspread the country, doubtless sweeping out the silt, sand, and gravel from exposed positions, but sparing them in the narrow glens and gullies that intersected its path" (175). The author gives a table of the strata disclosed at borings in the estuary of the Forth, which exhibits four several depositions of till with stones, divided from each other by intervening beds of sand (177, 178). Speaking of borings in the valley of the Kelvin, he says, "A glance at the 'borings' given above (pp. 183-4) will show that the buried hollows and ravines may contain more than one stony clay separated by considerable depths of aqueous deposits. These stony clays probably indicate just so many incursions of the ice-sheet; the intermediate beds of silt, sand, and gravel, may point on the other hand to periods when the ice vanished from the low grounds and crept back to the mountain valleys" (190). "Both lower and upper masses of till shown in the section, are crammed with well striated stones and boulders, and are in all respects typical deposits" (194). "The presence of the intercalated river gravel and sand indicates plainly that an interruption of this arctic condition of things took place. Before these river deposits could be laid down, the ice must have vanished from the Leithen valley, and if such was the case with this mountain-valley, we are driven to conclude that the great ice-sheet could not then have covered any portion of the Scottish lowlands. Glaciers may have lingered still in the high

valleys of the country, but it is obviously impossible that a great ice-sheet could exist while upland streams like the Leithen had freedom to flow. The aspect of the upper deposit of till in the section testifies to the disappearance of the mild conditions under which the river accumulations were formed, and to the return of an intensely arctic climate" (194, 195). "Combining the evidence we learn that not only did the great ice-sheet sometimes retire from the low grounds, and give place to lakes and streams and rivers, but also that, during such periods of milder conditions, a vegetation like that of cold temperate regions clothed the valleys with grasses and heaths, and the hill-sides with birch and pine. Rein-deer wandered across the country, while herds of the great white ox, the horse, the Irish deer, and the woolly-coated mammoth frequented the grassy vales" (196). "If the accumulation of the lower mass of till at Airdrie implies the former existence of one great confluent ice-sheet in Scotland; then, in like manner does the overlying mass of till compel us also to conclude that after a comparatively mild period had endured, for some time, another mighty ice-sheet again overflowed the land" (202). "We have found that there is abundant proof to show that the accumulation of a *moraine profonde* by one great ice-sheet, was interrupted several times; that the ice-sheet vanished from the low grounds, and even from many of the upland valleys, and that rivers and lakes then appeared where before all had been ice and snow. We have also learned that during such mild inter-glacial periods, oxen, deer, horses, mammoths, reindeer, and, no doubt, other animals besides these, occupied the land" (204). "A glance at the foregoing tables will show that the oldest glacial deposits (ground moraines) have yielded evidence of inter-glacial mild conditions in the following countries: viz., in Scotland, England, Scandinavia, and North America" (428; see also 429, 475). These evidences show that the great climatic changes they mark have been recurrent. And it is thought all the older deposits, reaching through the Tertiary, Secondary, and Primary systems, as low down as the Silurian beds, afford proofs of the like alternations (511).

In the times intervening between the visitations by ice, the climate, in the same regions so visited, has risen to be

temperate and tropical, as is evidenced by the imbedded remains of the products, vegetable and animal, which have occupied them. "The story, recorded everywhere, assures us that from the earliest times of which geologists can take cognizance down to the present, our globe has experienced many changes of climate. The plants of which our coal seams are composed, speak to us of lands covered with luxuriant growths of tree-ferns and auracarians, and the fossils in our limestones tell us of warm seas where coral luxuriated in the genial waters. Nor is it only in our own latitudes that scenes like these are conjured up by a study of the rocks. Even in high arctic regions, where the lands are well-nigh entirely concealed beneath the snow, and where the seas are often choked with ice all the year round, we often meet with remarkable proofs of genial and even warm climates having formerly prevailed at several widely separated periods. Limestones containing fossil corals, and numerous remains of extinct chambered shells, such as are now represented by the nautilus of the Pacific Ocean, occur frequently in the highest latitudes yet reached by man. Dr Hayes brought from the bleak shores of Grinnell Land certain fossils, the nature of which clearly indicates that at some distant date, a genial ocean, capable of nourishing corals and chambered shells must have overspread that region. Similar results have been obtained by many of our most distinguished arctic voyagers and from their observations it is now well ascertained that over all the regions within the Arctic circle which have yet been visited, genial climates have prevailed at different times during past geologic ages—climates that not only nourished corals and southern molluscs in the seas, but clothed the lands with a rich and luxuriant greenery" (103, 104). Professor Newberry has described the occurrence of a regular forest-bed, intercalated among true glacial deposits, and bones of the elephant, mastodon, and great extinct beaver, have been found in the same position" (417). Remains of the elephant and rhinoceros have been met with in Switzerland (429), and those of the hippopotamus have appeared at Leeds (491). The author arranges the different animal fossils according to the climates proper to them. The existence of the glutton reindeer, musk-sheep, pouched marmot, alpine hare, lemming

mammoth, woolly rhinoceros, bespeak an arctic climate; that of the bison, urus, grizzly bear, cave-bear, Irish elk, Brown's deer, lynx, wild cat, ermine, stoat, weasel, martin cat, otter, wild boar, horse, beaver, &c., one that was temperate; and that of the lion, tiger, spotted hyena, elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, one that was tropical. "It is quite impossible," he observes, "that these animals could have lived side by side." The reindeer of Lapland and Norway, and the hippopotamus of Southern Africa, it is obvious, could not have inhabited the same region together (451, 452). "We must admit, in short, that the northern mammalia occupied Britain during a cold and arctic condition of things, and that on the other hand the southern forms prevailed over the same area at a time when our winters were mild and genial" (467).

The author thus portrays the transitions undergone. Taking the present northern temperate zone up at a time when it was under the domination of ice, he says, "Ere long, this wonderful scene of arctic sterility passed away. Gradually the snow and ice melted, and drew back to the mountains, and plants and animals appeared as the climate ameliorated. The mammoth and the woolly-coated rhinoceros roamed in our valleys, the great bear haunted our caves, and pine-trees grew in the South of England; but the seasons were still well marked. In winter-time, frost often covered the rivers with a thick coat of ice, which the summer again tore away, when the rivers, swollen with the tribute of such receding glaciers as still lingered in our deeper glens, rushed along the valleys and spread devastation far and wide. By slow degrees, however, the cold of winter abated, while the heat of summer increased. As the warmth of summer waxed, the arctic mammalia gradually disappeared from our valleys, and sought out northern and more congenial homes. Step by step the climate continued to grow milder, and the difference between the seasons to be less distinctly marked, until eventually something like perpetual summer reigned in Britain. Then it was that the hippopotamus wallowed in our rivers, and the elephant crashed through our forests; then, too, the lion, the tiger, and the hyena became denizens of the English caves. Such scenes as these continued for a long time; but again the

climate began to change. The summers grew less genial, the winters more severe. Gradually the southern mammalia disappeared, and were succeeded by arctic animals. Even then, however, as the temperature became too severe, migration southward, until all life deserted Britain, and snow and ice were left in undisputed possession. Once more the confluent glaciers overflowed the land, and desolation and sterility were everywhere" (505, 506).

The traces of man, prominently afforded by the stone implements used by him, occur in conjunction with the animal remains. They have been found in positions showing man to have been on earth before the last glacial epoch (482). A remarkable evidence of this fact has recently been brought to light. "Mr Tiddeman writes to *Naturalist* Nov. 6, 1873, that amongst a number of bones obtained during the exploration of the Victoria Cave, near Settle, Yorkshire, there is one which Mr Busk has identified as human. Mr Busk says: 'The bone is, I have no doubt, human; a portion of an unusually clumsy fibula, and in this respect, not unlike the same bone in the Mentone skeleton. The interest of this discovery consists in the fact that the deposit from which the bone was obtained is overlaid, as Mr Tiddeman has shown, 'by a bed of stiff glacial clay, containing ice-scratched boulders.' Here, then, is direct proof that man lived in England *prior to the last inter-glacial period* (510, note).

Another series of phenomena connected with the investigation before us is the condition of the stratified beds, and the alterations of the sea-levels. These have necessarily occupied Professor Geikie's attention. He states, "We find that the intercalated beds of sand and gravel give unequivocal proof of having been subjected to great pressure. They are twisted, bent, crumpled, and confused, often in the wildest manner. Layers of clay, sand, and gravel, which were probably deposited in a nearly horizontal plane, are puckered into folds and sharply curved into vertical positions. I have seen whole beds of sand and clay which had all the appearance of having been pushed forward bodily for some distance, the bedding assuming the most fantastic appearance" (166, 167). Several drawings are given illustrating these displacements.

"In many places the beds are confusedly twisted, crumpled, and contorted—the laminæ being bent violently over, now in one direction, now in another" (266). "Rock-basins occur in regions where the strata are "bent and contorted in a hundred curves all along and under the length of the lake, nor does the direction or slope of the basins bear any relation whatever to the prevailing inclination of the strata" (288). The *faults*, or dislocations, in coal-seams, are of similar import, proving that some force has been exerted to break their continuance. The professor says they extend to from twenty to sixty fathoms, measuring, I presume, in depth from the earth's surface. "They frequently cross and shift each other; yet no yawning crack or irregular depression at the surface gives one any indication of their existence. . . . My impression is that none of these dislocations ever showed at the surface. . . . I may state that, as a general rule, faults increase in extent downwards, and diminish upwards, so that the upper seams are not dislocated to the same extent as the lower seams of the same coalfield." (289.) "During these great oscillations of climate there were not infrequent shiftings in the distribution of land and sea." (506). "The deposits of silt, clay, sand, and gravel, with land-plants and mammalian remains, and occasionally with marine shells, all of which beds are intercalated in the till, clearly show that the intense arctic cold which covered the country with an ice-sheet was interrupted, not once only, but several times, by long continuous ages of milder conditions. Some of these periods may have been warmer than others, just as some of the glacial periods may have been colder. The sea-shells, got in one place at a height of 512 feet in an intercalated bed, indicate that there was at least one period of considerable depression during the accumulation of the Lower Drift" (351, 352). Scotland "became submerged to a depth in the south-east and west midland districts of probably as much as 1100 or 1280 feet. Whether this great submergence extended over all Scotland we cannot yet say." (353). "The land continued to be upheaved, and several pauses in the movement of elevation were marked by the formation of what are termed raised beaches. With the exception of those at the lower levels, all the raised beaches belong to the glacial epoch.

Britain became continental by the conversion of the German Ocean into dry land. At first, probably, bare and treeless, eventually passed into the condition of a great forest-land. The climate was continental, and the fauna temperate and cold-temperate. Men who used polished stone implements then lived in Scotland. Submergence once more ensued. The destruction of the forest-lands and the increase of peat mosses dated its commencement from this period. Climate insular, but colder than at present. Final re-elevation and formation of the low-level raised beaches" (354). "A large portion of the British Islands, and Scandinavia, sank down below the sea, and Denmark, Holland, the plains of Germany and northern Russia, also disappeared below the waves" (492). The author figures man as having "entered Britain at a time when our country was joined to Europe across the bed of the German Ocean; at a time when the winters were severe enough to freeze over the rivers in the south of England; at a time when glaciers nestled in our upland and mountain valleys, and the arctic mammalia occupied the land. He lived here long enough to witness a complete change of climate—to see the arctic mammalia vanish from England and the hippopotamus and its congeners take their place. At a later date, and while a mild and genial climate still continued, he beheld the sea slowly gain upon the land, until little by little, step by step, a large portion of our country was submerged—a submergence which, as we know, reached in Wales to the extent of some 2000 feet or thereabout. We know further, that, simultaneously with the partial drowning of the British Islands, a vast area in northern Europe also sank down below the waves" (507, 508). Another great change ensued. Those mysterious forces by which the solid crust of the globe is elevated and depressed, now again began to act—the sea gradually retreated, and our hills and valleys eventually re-appeared. Step by step the British Islands rose out of the waters, until, for the last time, they became united to the continent. . . . As years rolled on the sea again stole in between our islands and the continent, until a final severance was effected" (509, 510).

The traces of the climatic changes which the earth has undergone are on a scale to make it apparent that vast ages

were occupied in effecting these transitions. "The disappearance of a *mer de glace*, which in the lowlands of Scotland attained a thickness of nearer 3000 ft. than 2000 ft., could only be effected by a very considerable change of climate. Nor, when one fully considers all sides of the question, does it appear unreasonable to infer that the comparatively mild and genial periods, of which the inter-glacial beds are memorials, may have endured as long as those arctic or glacial conditions which preceded and followed them. We have a difficulty in conceiving of the length of time implied in the gradual increase of that cold which, as the years went by, eventually buried the whole country underneath one vast *mer de glace*. Nor can we form any proper conception of how long a time was needed to bring about that other change of climate, under the influence of which, slowly and imperceptibly, this immense sheet of frost melted away from the lowlands and retired to the mountain recesses. We must allow that long ages elapsed before the warmth became such as to induce plants and animals to clothe and people the land. How vast a time, also, must have passed away ere the warmth reached its climax, and the temperature again began to cool down! How slowly, step by step, the ice must have crept out from the mountain-fastnesses, chilling the air, and forcing fauna and flora to retire before it; and what a long succession of years must have come and gone before the ice-sheet once more wrapped up the hills, obliterated the valleys, and, streaming out from the shore, usurped the bed of the shallow seas that flowed around our island! Finally, when we consider that such a succession of changes happened not once only, but again and again, we cannot fail to have some faint appreciation of the lapse of time required for the accumulation of the till and the inter-glacial deposits" (199-201; see also 405, 406).

Professor Geikie thereupon puts before him the problem to be solved. "If we find," he observes, "the remains of full-grown trees in Greenland, and ammonites and corals even farther north, we may be quite sure, that, owing to some cause, apparent or obscure, these regions must at one time have received from some external source a greater proportion of heat, either directly or indirectly, than they do now. And

so, conversely, if in our own land we discover traces of great snow-fields and massive glaciers, we cannot hesitate to conclude, that in the ages when such frigid conditions prevailed this area was deprived of much of the heat which now reaches it. But if this be so, we may well ask what the nature of that action is which can alternately visit our hemisphere with long continued ages of fruitful summer or render it bleak and barren with perpetual snow and ice (106, 107).

Disposing of Sir Charles Lyell's opinion that alterations in the distribution of sea and land may have produced the changes of climature that have occurred, as insufficient for the purpose, the author rightly concludes that the proper quarter to which to look for the required solution is the relations of our planet to the sun (121), the indubitable rule of all our great climatic variations. It would have been well, and only in keeping with the principle he had apparently laid down, that like causes should be suggested for like effects had the professor, in selecting the agency of the sun to account for the phenomena before him, applied that agency in the manner it is seen to operate, to our habitual experience, in raising or lowering the temperature of the earth's surfaces. This, however, he has not done. Restricting himself to the measure of knowledge imparted to us by the astronomers, and supporting himself with Mr Croll's views, he can see no altering conditions of the earth, relatively to the sun, to which to attribute the climatic changes that are in question, than the deflection of the poles of the earth in that circular gyration which causes the precession of the equinoxes, and the variation in the form of its ellipticity which the orbit of the earth undergoes through the attractions the earth experiences in its path from other planets (124, 134, 135, 149, 507).

The measures of these two movements are very diverse and it appears hard to understand how they are to enter into combination with one another, in order to effect, at stated times, between them, the same periodical results. The equinoctial rotation the professor limits, in round numbers to 21,000 years, by making allowance "for another complex movement, due to the action of the planets" (130), referring

I presume, to that known as the revolution of the apsides (Denison, *Astronomy without Mathematics*, 31). The orbital movement he has not computed. The diameter of the ellipse is held to vary by $13\frac{1}{2}$ millions of miles. We are thought to be at present eleven millions of miles short of the extent to which the ellipse may be contracted, and for this 210,065 years are said to be requisite (Lyell, *Prin. of Geo. I.* 292, depending on a calculation by Mr Stone of the Greenwich Observatory). The entire movement, calculating on this scale, would occupy 257,805 years, and the period between each extreme of heat and cold for the earth would be the time during which the orbit was reaching its extremes and returning to the same point again, or 515,610 years. To bring the very much shorter period of the precessional rotation into combination with this vast period, so as to attribute to the two some given long sustained joint results, appears therefore an unreasonable proposition. Had either movement sufficed for the professor's purposes, he would scarcely have resorted to the embarrassing proposition that the two were bringing them about together.

It may be conceded that the divergence of the poles in the precessional rotation has some effect upon the climature of the earth, but this can only be within degrees not reaching to the limits of the changes before us. To produce transitions from arctic cold to tropical heat, and to maintain the altering condition over long ages, obviously requires some far greater and more persistent causation. This the professor seeks in introducing the variation in the orbit as an inducing cause. But he does so without evidence that the movement has such results. The true course in judging of the operations of nature is to follow ever in her own footsteps. We ought to be satisfied that whatever the circumstances which have produced the ice that covers the polar regions, so occupying them over a very lengthened course of years, they are just those that must have prevailed when the temperate regions were covered over with an equally thick and enduring similar coating. We should be in like manner satisfied that whatever induces the torrid climates of the equatorial regions which are seen to be necessary to the existence of the elephant, tiger, lion, rhinoceros, and hippopotamus, the same

must have brought about the like climate in the temperate quarters when they were the habitat of these animals. There is nothing we know of which regulates these very differing climates but propinquity to the poles, with reception of the rays of the sun in a very oblique direction, or not at all, and distance from the poles, with the reception of the rays in their fullest power vertically. Professor Geikie, however, resorts to a cause for these phenomena, not only unsupplied to him by any experience before us, but running counter to such indications as we do possess. The earth's distance from the sun in the course of its orbit, he presumes may mainly bring about the recorded extremes of climate under which Great Britain has at one time possessed the icy temperature of Greenland, and at another the torrid heat of India or Central Africa. In the course of our current annual circuit round the sun, we pass at times nearer and further from him, as he is not situated centrically to our orbit; but it happens that when we are nearest to him, it is with us mid-winter, and when furthest from him, it is mid-summer (Guillemin, 121), so that the professor has to make the admission, adversely to his theory, "that mere proximity to the sun will not necessarily produce a warm season" (139).

This is also otherwise demonstrable. A condition on which the transmission of heat from the sun's rays absolutely depends, is the atmosphere surrounding our globe. At low levels this atmosphere is dense, and the heat is conveyed in potency; at high levels it is rarified, and the access of heat is proportionately reduced. The effect of distance from the sun as here judged of, is to induce heat, and of propinquity to him cold. We have snow and ice maintained continuously at all seasons of the year on the Himalaya and the Andes, and subtropical and tropical climates occurring on the low grounds at the bases. It must then follow that to remove us in distance from the sun, or to bring us nearer to him, in spaces devoid or nearly so, of a conducting atmosphere, in the measures involved by the variation of the orbit, would not cause sensible changes of climate, far less effect the excessive changes which are in question.

Of the circumstance that the tropics must have been under a coating of ice as thick and permanent as that which now covers Greenland, the professor is evidently unaware. His explanation of the passage of the erratic boulders will alone account for those seen strewn upon the plains of India. "The boulders in Mysore, &c.," my correspondent writes to me, "are in some places piled one on the top of another in thousands, and their size is from ten to twenty feet thick. Near Chittoor I saw them scattered over a grassy plain extending for many miles, exactly as if they had been deposited by melting ice, as no doubt they were." We have to figure to ourselves ice covering these regions to a thickness of thousands of feet, the western range of mountains, running to elevations of four and five thousand feet, and in one part, namely at the Neilgherries, to over eight thousand, remaining uncovered, and it becomes quite intelligible that the boulders in question have been splintered off these heights by the intense frost, and borne on the ice eastwards and westwards to where they have been discerned. The foot of the Neilgherries approaches within forty miles of the western ocean, just where the huge boulders forming the Sacrifice Rocks, eight miles out at sea, occur. And on the other side the hillock, near Madras, named St Thomas's Mount, has arrested the passage of numbers of these erratics on their way to the eastern ocean. The professor's theory of course does not cover this condition of things within the tropics. The presence of tropical and sub-tropical vegetable and animal remains in the arctic regions forces him to allow of the transference of tropical heat to those quarters, but he has no consciousness that this entailed the corresponding transference of arctic cold to the tropics.

The contortions of strata met with, the professor thinks, may have been caused by the grounding of icebergs and the passage of ice otherwise over the stratified beds (267), but so partial a cause does not suffice to account for a result I understand to be altogether general. We everywhere observe seriously disturbed strata, and it is not to be supposed that the moving masses of ice have equally been everywhere. For the greater and more decided action which has fractured the coal-seams, the more extensively the deeper down we go, and

for the very serious upheavals and depressions which have continually altered the earth's levels, he appears to have no explanation to give. These are disturbances evidently to be associated together, and we see such in actual operation in equatorial countries. The centrifugal force there exerted distends the diameter of the earth, and as each portion of the globe may be brought to the position of the equator, it would be necessarily there subjected to the propulsion in that direction continually being effected.

I cannot take leave of Professor Geikie's work without expressing the obligations under which all interested in these questions have been laid by the copious and carefully stated evidence he has produced, from his own actual observation and other reliable sources, to exhibit to us somewhat of the past history of the globe we inhabit. We must rise with wonder from the contemplation of the vast operations of which this earth is the constant scene. The ancient Aryans, drawing from what source of information open to them it is difficult to judge, have pictured to themselves constant dissolutions and re-creations, occupying lengthened ages; and we, in modern times, discern the unmistakeable traces of the like passage of events. The ice prevails and obliterates, or expels, all organized forms, vegetable and animal. The genial rays of the sun return, and all teems again with life. Some few of the animal forms may pass and re-pass, migrating when the climate became unbearable to them, and returning as it is ameliorated, and some seeds may have been carried to and fructified, and in this manner have perpetuated themselves. But there are multitudes in each kingdom which cannot thus have survived and evaded the pressure of the climate unfavourable to them. The cold would numb and congeal, and the heat would scorch out the vitality of all that were not in a condition so to transfer themselves. The rule in every region is an appropriate *flora* and *fauna*, inevitably, and the presumption must be strong that the productive powers of nature, in each place, raise up and stock it with all the forms of life suitable to it. When we wish to revive the fertility of arable land, we leave it to nurse and restore its energies unused as fallow. The ice age, wherein the processes of vital creation are sus-

pended, may possibly operate as a fallow period, after which nature, released for action, with accumulated forces, may have capacity to launch into life the superior forms, after the manner in which, in ordinary times, she is seen to bring into being the infusoria. To unlock her mysteries our course should be to suggest no other methods than such as she has herself put before us.



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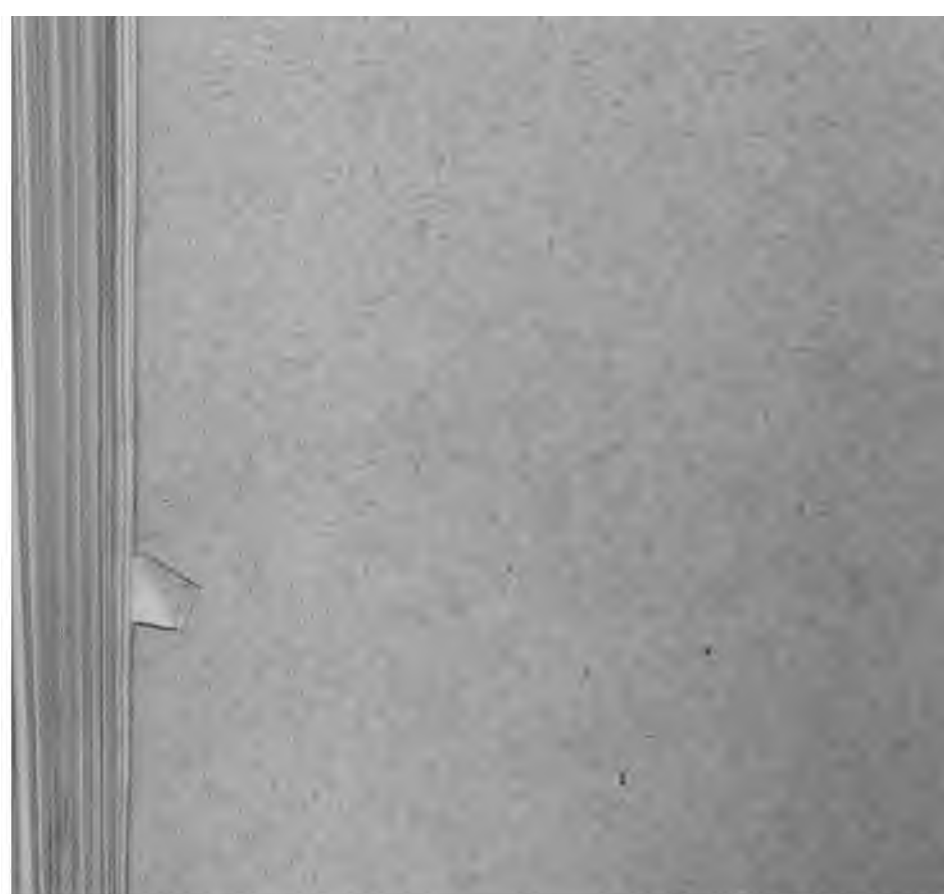
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